A GLOSSARY

MATTER BARN BETATRON
ZMSSTRAHLUNG COOLANT
CALITY CURIE GYCLOTRON
EUTERON FISSION FUSION
ASOMER ISOTORE LATTICE
MESON MUON NEUTRING
TIVITY ROENTGEN SCALER
MISYNCHROTRON TRACER
NSMUTATION TRITIUM YOUR

U.S. ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION
Office of Information Services
A World of the Atom Series Booklet



The World of the Atom Series

Nuclear energy is playing a vital role in the life of every man, woman, and child in the United States today. In the years ahead it will affect increasingly all the peoples of the earth. It is essential that all Americans gain an understanding of this vital force if they are to discharge thoughtfully their responsibilities as citizens and if they are to realize fully the myriad benefits that nuclear energy offers them.

The United States Atomic Energy Commission provides this booklet to help you achieve such understanding.

UNITED STATES ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION

Dr. James R. Schlesinger, Chairman James T. Ramey Wilfrid E. Johnson Dr. Clarence E. Larson William O. Doub

FOREWORD

Terms defined in this glossary are among those commonly used in nuclear science and its applications. Some also are in common usage or apply in other specialized areas of science and technology. When this is the case, the definitions given are those which have special meaning in nuclear fields, unless otherwise indicated.

This glossary is intended for persons who are not specialists in the subject matter of atomic energy. Some definitions may for that reason fall short of technical precision or completeness. A reference list on page 66 includes other glossaries and detailed sources of information.

For cross-references, *italic* type is used. Definitions that employ or refer the reader to synonymous, parallel, similar, or related terms defined elsewhere in this glossary show such terms in *italics*. Example:

dry criticality Reactor criticality achieved without a coolant. (Compare wet criticality; see criticality.)

Definitions expressed wholly or largely in terms defined elsewhere in this glossary also are set in italics. Example:

A-bomb An atomic bomb.

In definitions that mention related general or collective subject areas, defined in this glossary, which are not necessarily synonymous to or parallel with the term being defined, but which may contribute understanding, these broad subject areas are printed in *CAPITAL ITALICS*. Example:

scintillation A flash of light produced by a phosphor in an $IONIZING\ EVENT$.

The Appendix beginning on page 67 includes prefixes, units of measurement, constants, abbreviations, a Periodic Table and List of the Elements, tables of isotopes of some of the elements, principal fission products, and the four radioactive decay series.

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HOW THIS GLOSSARY WAS WRITTEN

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This edition of "Nuclear Terms: A Brief Glossary" is an outgrowth of an earlier edition compiled by James D. Lyman of the Atomic Energy Commission Division of Public Information, who also served as its co-editor. Mr. Lyman years earlier had started a card file of definitions of nuclear terms to assist him in his work of answering inquiries from newsmen. The file grew to impressive proportions and proved so useful that others asked for copies.

The card file, somewhat enlarged, carefully edited, revised and reviewed by authorities both within and outside the Atomic Energy Commission, appeared in April 1964, as the first edition of this booklet. It proved to be one of the most popular of the "Understanding the Atom" series. More than 118,000 copies were distributed.

Numerous suggestions were made that the list of terms be enlarged. This has now been done. Mr. Lyman's original list contained 385 terms. The present volume contains 640. Moreover, the complete list has been reviewed anew by those who contributed to the first edition as well as by additional specialists.

Principal reviewers and contributors from outside the AEC were William R. Corliss, nuclear engineer, consultant and writer; Dr. John F. Hogerton, nuclear consultant and author of *The Atomic Energy Desk-book*; Dr. Samuel Glasstone, author of *Sourcebook on Atomic Energy* and many other technical volumes; and Dr. Charles W. Shilling, editor and principal contributor to *The Atomic Energy Encyclopedia in the Life Sciences*.

Many members of the AEC staff also contributed extensively to this edition, particularly Dr. Walter D. Claus, formerly with the Division of Biology and Medicine, and Dr. Benjamin S. Loeb, Division of Technical Information. Dr. John H. Pomeroy formerly with the AEC Division of Research was the technical editor. Harold F. Osborne formerly with the Division of Technical Information was editorial supervisor.

The complete list of terms in the first edition was edited and revised as necessary. In addition, by increased cross-referencing (see Foreword), similar and related terms were linked to provide greater utility and increase understanding.

NUCLEAR TERMS

A GLOSSARY

Second Edition



Symbol for mass number.

A-bomb An alomic bomb.

absorbed dose When IONIZING RADIATION passes through MATTER, some of its energy is imparted to the matter. The amount absorbed per unit mass of irradiated material is called the absorbed dose, and is measured in

rems and rads. (See threshold dose.)

absorber Any material that absorbs or diminishes the intensity of ionizing RADIATION. Neutron absorbers, like boron, hafnium, and cadmium, are used in control rods for reactors. Concrete and steel absorb gamma rays and neutrons in reactor shields. A thin sheet of paper or metal will absorb or attenuate alpha particles and all except the most energetic beta particles. (Compare moderator; see poison.)

absorption The process by which the number of particles or photons entering a body of MATTER is reduced by interaction of the particles or radiation with the matter; similarly, the reduction of the energy of a particle while traversing a body of matter. This term is sometimes erroneously used for capture. (Compare capture; see stopping power.)

> A device for increasing the velocity and energy of charged ELEMENTARY PARTICLES, for example, electrons or protons, through application of electrical and/or magnetic forces. Accelerators have made particles move at velocities approaching the speed of light. Types of accelerators include betatrons, Cockcroft-Walton accelerators, cyclotrons, linear accelerators, synchrocyclotrons, synchrotrons, and Van de Graaff generators.

accelerator

1

actinide series The series of elements beginning with actinium, Element No. 89, and continuing through lawrencium, Element No. 103, which together occupy one position in the Periodic Table. The series includes uranium, Element No. 92, and all the man-made transuranic elements. The group is also referred to as the "Actinides". (Compare lanthanide series, transuranic elements.) (See Appendix.)

actinium series (sequence)

The series of nuclides resulting from the radioactive decay of uranium-235. Many man-made nuclides decay into this sequence. The end product of this sequence in nature is lead-207. (See decay, radioactive; radioactive series.) (See Appendix.)

activation

The process of making a material radioactive by bombardment with neutrons, protons, or other nuclear particles. Also called radioactivation. (See activation analysis, induced radioactivity.)

activation analysis A method for identifying and measuring chemical elements in a sample of material. The sample is first made radioactive by bombardment with neutrons, charged particles, or gamma rays. The newly formed radioactive atoms in the sample then give off characteristic nuclear radiations (such as gamma rays) that tell what kinds of atoms are present and how many. Activation analysis is usually more sensitive than chemical analysis. It is used in research, industry, archeology, and criminology.

radioactivity. (See specific activity.)

The U. S. Atomic Energy Commission.

The cooling of a reactor after it has been shut down.

The heat produced by the continuing decay of radioactive atoms in a reactor after fission has stopped. Most of the afterheat is due to the radioactive decay of fission broducts.

air sampling

The collection and analysis of samples of air to measure its radioactivity or to detect the presence of radioactive substances. (See falloul.)

allobar

A form of an element differing in isotopic composition, having a different average atomic weight from the usually occurring form. (See isotope.)

[Symbol α (alpha)] A positively charged particle emitted by certain radioactive materials. It is made up of two neutrons and two protons bound together, hence is identical with the nucleus of a helium atom. It is the least penetrating of the three common types of radiation (alpha, beta, gamma) emitted by radioactive material, being stopped by a sheet of paper. It is not dangerous to plants, animals or man unless the alphaemitting substance has entered the body. (See decay, radioactive.)

A stream of alpha particles. Loosely, a synonym for alpha particle.

[Symbol A or A] A unit of length, used in measuring electromagnetic radiation, equal to 10^{-8} centimeter. Named for A. J. Angstrom, Swedish spectroscopist. (See Appendix.)

(See antimatter.)

Matter in which the ordinary nuclear particles (neutrons, protons, electrons, etc.) are conceived of as being replaced by their corresponding antiparticles (antineutrons, antiprotons, positrons, etc.). An antihydrogen atom, for example, would consist of a negatively charged antiproton with an orbital positron. Normal matter and antimatter would mutually annihilate each other upon contact, being converted totally into energy. (Compare matter.)

A particle of matter indivisible by chemical means. It is the fundamental building block of the chemical elements. The elements, such as iron, lead, and sulfur, differ from each other because they contain different kinds of atoms. There are about six sextillion (6 followed by 21 zeros, or 6×10^{21}) atoms in an ordinary drop of water. According to present-day theory, an atom contains a dense inner core (the nucleus) and a much less dense outer domain consisting of electrons in motion around the nucleus. Atoms are electrically neutral. (Compare element, ion, molecule: see matter.)

An accelerator.

atomic battery

A radioisotopic generator.

atomic bomb

A bomb whose energy comes from the fission of heavy elements, such as uranium or plutonium. (Compare hydrogen bomb.)

atomic clock A device that uses the extremely fast vibrations of molecules or atomic nuclei to measure time. These vibrations remain constant with time, consequently short intervals can be measured with much higher precision than by mechanical or electrical clocks. (Compare radioactive dating.)

atomic cloud The cloud of hot gases, smoke, dust, and other matter that is carried aloft after the explosion of a nuclear weapon in the air or near the surface. The cloud frequently has a mushroom shape. (See fireball, radioactive cloud.)

atomic energy

nuclear energy.

Atomic Energy

[Abbreviation AEC] The independent civilian agency of the federal government with statutory responsibility for atomic energy matters. Also the body of five persons, appointed by the President, to direct the agency.

(See alomic weight, mass.)

Symbol amu One-twelfth the mass of a neutral atom of the most abundant isotope of carbon, ¹²C. (See atomic weight, mass number.)

atomic number

|Symbol Z | The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom, and also its positive charge. Each chemical element has its characteristic atomic number, and the atomic numbers of the known elements form a complete series from 1 (hydrogen) to 103 (lawrencium). (Compare atomic weight, mass number; see element, isotobe, Periodic Table.)

A nuclear reactor.

atomic weapon

An explosive weapon in which the energy is produced by nuclear fission or fusion. (Compare device, nuclear.)

atomic weight

The mass of an atom relative to other atoms. The present-day basis of the scale of atomic weights is carbon; the commonest isotope of this element has arbitrarily been assigned an atomic weight of 12. The unit of the scale is $\frac{1}{12}$ the weight of the carbon-12 atom, or roughly the mass of one proton or one neutron. The atomic weight of any element is approximately equal to the total number of protons and neutrons in its nucleus. (Compare atomic number; see atomic mass unit. Periodic Table.)

A photographic record of radiation from radioactive material in an object, made by placing the object very close to a photographic film or emulsion. The process is called autoradiography. It is used, for instance, to locate radioactive atoms or tracers in metallic or biological samples. (Compare radiography.)



background background radiation.

The radiation in man's natural environment, including cosmic rays and radiation from the naturally radioactive elements, both outside and inside the bodies of men and animals. It is also called natural radiation. The term may also mean radiation that is unrelated to a specific experiment. (See *cosmic rays*.)

backscatter

When radiation of any kind strikes matter (gas, liquid or solid), some of it may be reflected or scattered back in the general direction of the source. An understanding or exact measurement of the amount of backscatter is important when beta particles are being counted in an ionization chamber, in medical treatment with radiation, or in use of industrial radioisotopic thickness gauges. (See gauging.)

Symbol b A unit area used in expressing the cross sections of atoms, nuclei, electrons, and other particles. One barn is equal to 10^{-24} square centimeter. (See cross section.) (See Appendix.)

barricade shield A type of movable shield for protection from radiation. (See shield.)

A wall or enclosure shielding the operator from an area where radioactive material is being used or processed by remote control equipment. (See shield.)

One of a class of heavy elementary particles that includes hyperons, neutrons and protons. (Compare lepton, meson.)

A stream of particles or electromagnetic radiation, going in a single direction.

beam hole

An opening through a reactor shield and, generally, through the reactor reflector, which permits a beam of radioactive particles or radiation to be used for experiments outside the reactor.

beta particle

[Symbol β (beta)] An elementary particle emitted from a nucleus during radioactive decay, with a single electrical charge and a mass equal to \(^1/_{1837}\) that of a proton. A negatively charged beta particle is identical to an electron. A positively charged beta particle is called a positron. Beta radiation may cause skin burns, and beta-emitters are harmful if they enter the body. Beta particles are easily stopped by a thin sheet of metal, however. (See decay, radioactive.)

betatron A doughnut-shaped accelerator in which electrons, traveling in an orbit of constant radius, are accelerated by a changing magnetic field. Energies as high as 340 Mev have been attained. (See accelerator.)

Symbol for billion (or 109) electron volts. Also written as BeV. (See electron volt.) (See Appendix.)

The binding energy of a nucleus is the minimum energy required to dissociate it into its component neutrons and protons. Neutron or proton binding energies are those required to remove a neutron or a proton, respectively, from a nucleus. Electron binding energy is that required to remove an electron from an atom or a molecule. (Compare fission, ionization.)

The radiation dose absorbed in biological material. Measured in rems. (See absorbed dose.)

biological half-life The time required for a biological system, such as a man or an animal, to eliminate, by natural processes, half the amount of a substance (such as a radioactive material) that has entered it. (Compare half-life; see half-life, effective.)

biological shield A mass of absorbing material placed around a reactor or radioactive source to reduce the radiation to a level that is safe for human beings. (See absorber, shield, thermal shield.)

blanket A layer of fertile material, such as uranium-238 or thorium-232, placed around the fissionable material in a reactor. (See fertile material, seed core.)

blast wave. A pulse of air, propagated from an explosion, in which the pressure increases sharply at the front of a moving air mass, accompanied by strong, transient winds. (See shock wave.)

body burden. The amount of radioactive material present in the body of a man or an animal. (See background radiation, whole body counter.)

boiling water

A reactor in which water, used as both coolant and moderator, is allowed to boil in the core. The resulting steam can be used directly to drive a turbine. (Compare water boiler.)

bone seeker

A radioisolope that tends to accumulate in the bones when it is introduced into the body. An example is strontium-90, which behaves chemically like calcium.

brachytherapy

Radiation treatment using a solid or enclosed radioisotopic source on the surface of the body or at a short distance from the area to be treated. (Compare interstitial implants, teletherapy; see radiation therapy.)

A reactor that produces fissionable fuel as well as consuming it, especially one that creates more than it consumes. The new fissionable material is created by capture in fertile materials of neutrons from fission. The process by which this occurs is known as breeding. (Compare converter reactor: see fertile material.)

(See breeder reactor.)

breeding gain (See breeding ratio.)

breeding ratio The ratio of the number of fissionable atoms produced in a breeder reactor to the number of fissionable atoms consumed in the reactor. Breeding gain is the breeding ratio minus one. (Compare conversion ratio.)

bremsstrahlung

Electromagnetic radiation emitted (as photons) when a fast-moving charged particle (usually an electron) loses energy upon being accelerated and deflected by the electric field surrounding a positively charged atomic nucleus. X rays produced in ordinary X-ray machines are bremsstrahlung. (In German, the term means "braking radiation".) (See X ray.)

A device used for detection and study of elementary particles and nuclear reactions. Charged particles from an accelerator are introduced into a superheated liquid, each forming a trail of bubbles along its path. The trails are photographed, and by studying the photograph scientists can identify the particles and analyze the nuclear events in which they originate. (Compare cloud chamber, spark chamber,)

burnable poison A neutron absorber (or poison), such as boron, which, when purposely incorporated in the fuel or fuel cladding of a nuclear reactor, gradually "burns up" (is changed into nonabsorbing material) under neutron irradiation. This process compensates for the loss of reactivity that occurs as fuel is consumed and fission-product poisons accumulate, and keeps the overall characteristics of the reactor nearly constant during its use. (See poison, reactivity.)

A converter reactor.

burnup A measure of reactor fuel consumption. It can be expressed as (a) the percentage of fuel atoms that have undergone fission, or (b) the amount of energy produced per unit weight of fuel in the reactor.

Any radioactive material (except source material or fissionable material) obtained during the production or use of source material or fissionable material. It includes fission products and many other radioisotopes produced in nuclear reactors. (Compare fissionable material, source material.)



plant factor.

capture A process in which an atomic or nuclear system acquires an additional particle; for example, the capture of electrons by positive ions, or capture of electrons or neutrons by nuclei. (See absorption, Kcapture, radiative capture.)

A stable isotope, or a normal element, to which radioactive atoms of the same element can be added to obtain a quantity of radioactive mixture sufficient for handling, or to produce a radioactive mixture that will undergo the same chemical or biological reaction as the stable isotope. A substance in weighable amount which, when associated with a trace of another substance, will carry the trace through a chemical, physical or biological process. (See radioactive tracer; tracer, isotopic.)

cascade A connected arrangement of units of equipment for separation of isotopes. A single device or process usually can produce only a small amount of isotopic separation, but if a number of these are connected together the effect can be multiplied and a significant amount of separation achieved. An example is a cascade of barriers for the gaseous diffusion process. (See gaseous diffusion, isotope separation.)

cathode rays A stream of electrons emitted by the cathode, or negative electrode, of a gas-discharge tube or by a hot filament in a vacuum tube, such as a television tube.

cave A hot cell.

Cerenkov radiation Light emitted when charged particles pass through a transparent material at a velocity greater than that of light in that material. It can be seen, for example, as a blue glow in the water around the fuel elements of pool reactors. P. A. Čerenkov was the Russian scientist who first explained the origin of this light. (See radiation.)

chain reaction A reaction that stimulates its own repetition. In a fission chain reaction a fissionable nucleus absorbs a neutron and fissions, releasing additional neutrons. These in turn can be absorbed by other fissionable nuclei, releasing still more neutrons. A fission chain reaction is self-sustaining when the number of neutrons released in a given time equals or exceeds the number of neutrons lost by absorption in non-fissioning material or by escape from the system. (See criticality, fission.)

charged particle An ion; an elementary particle that carries a positive or negative electric charge. (See plasma.)

chemical dosimeter A detector for indirect measurement of radiation by indicating the extent to which the radiation causes a definite chemical change to take place. (Compare film badge, ionization chamber; see dosimeter.)

chemical shim Chemicals, such as boric acid, which are placed in a reactor coolant to control the reactor by absorbing neutrons. (Compare burnable poison, shim rod; see absorber.)

chopper A rotating shutter for interrupting an otherwise continuous stream of particles. Choppers can release short bursts of neutrons with known energies, used to measure nuclear cross sections. (See beam, cross section.)

cladding The outer jacket of nuclear fuel elements. It prevents corrosion of the fuel and the release of fission products into the coolant. Aluminum or its alloys, stainless steel and zirconium alloys are common cladding materials.

clean bomb A nuclear bomb that produces relatively little radioactive fallout. A fusion bomb. (Compare dirty bomb.)

reactor system

closed-cycle A reactor design in which the primary heat of fission is transferred outside the reactor core to do useful work by means of a coolant circulating in a completely closed system that includes a heat exchanger. (Compare direct-cycle reactor system, indirectcycle reactor system, open-cycle reactor system.)

A device in which the tracks of charged atomic particles, such as cosmic rays or accelerator beams, are displayed. It consists of a glass-walled chamber filled with a supersaturated vapor, such as wet air. When charged particles pass through the chamber, they trigger a process of condensation, and so produce a track of tiny liquid droplets, much like the vapor trail of a jet plane. This track permits scientists to study the particles' motions and interactions. (Compare bubble chamber, spark chamber.)

If a nuclear weapon were encased in cobalt, large amounts of radioactive cobalt-60 could be produced when it was detonated. Such a weapon (only theoretical today) could add to the explosive force of the bomb the danger of the highly penetrating and long-lasting gamma radiation emitted by cobalt-60.

accelerator

Cockeroff Walton A device for accelerating charged particles by the action of a high direct-current voltage on a stream of gas ions in a straight insulated tube; the voltage is generated by a voltage multiplier system consisting essentially of a number of condenser pairs connected through switching devices (vacuum tubes). The particles (which are nuclei of an ionized gas, such as protons from hydrogen) gain energies of up to several million electron volts from the single acceleration so produced. Named for the British physicists, J. D. Cockcroft and E. T. S. Walton, who developed this machine in the 1930s. (See accelerator.)

offin A heavily shielded shipping cask for spent (used) fuel elements. Some coffins weigh as much as 75 tons.

coincidence counting

A method for detecting or identifying radioactive materials and for calibrating their disintegration rates by counting two or more characteristic radiation events (such as gamma ray emissions) which occur together or in a specific time relationship to each other. This method is important in activation analysis, medical scanning, cosmic ray studies and low-level measurements. (See counter, low-level counting.)

collimator

A device for focusing or confining a beam of particles or radiation, such as X rays.

collision

A close approach of two or more particles, photons, atoms or nuclei, during which such quantities as energy, momentum and charge may be exchanged. (See Compton effect, excited state, pair production, scattering.)

Compton effect

Elastic scattering of photons (X rays or gamma rays) by electrons. In each such process the electron gains energy and recoils, and the photon loses energy. This is one of three ways photons lose energy upon interacting with matter, and is the usual method with photons of intermediate energy and materials of low atomic number. It is named for A. H. Compton, American physicist, who discovered it in 1923. (See collision, pair production, scattering.)

containment

The provision of a gastight shell or other enclosure around a reactor to confine fission products that otherwise might be released to the atmosphere in the event of an accident.

containment vessel

A gas tight shell or other enclosure around a reactor. (Compare pressure vessel; see containment.)

contamination

(See radioactive contamination.)

control rod A rod, plate, or tube containing a material that readily absorbs neutrons (hafnium, boron, etc.), used to control the power of a nuclear reactor. By absorbing neutrons, a control rod prevents the neutrons from causing further fission. (See absorber, regulating rod, safety rod, and shim rod, which are types of control rods.)

experiment

controlled fusion (See controlled thermonuclear reaction.)

controlled thermo- Controlled fusion, that is, fusion produced under renuclear reaction search conditions, or for production of useful power. (See Sherwood.)

(See converter reactor.)

conversion ratio The ratio of the number of atoms of new fissionable material produced in a converter reactor to the original number of atoms of fissionable fuel consumed. (Compare breeding ratio.)

Converter reactor A reactor that produces some fissionable material, but less than it consumes. In some usages, a reactor that produces a fissionable material different from the fuel burned, regardless of the ratio. In both usages the process is known as conversion. (Compare breeder reactor.)

coolant A substance circulated through a nuclear reactor to remove or transfer heat. Common coolants are water, air, carbon dioxide, liquid sodium and sodiumpotassium alloy (NaK).

The central portion of a nuclear reactor containing the fuel elements and usually the moderator, but not the reflector.

COSMIC Tays Radiation of many sorts but mostly atomic nuclei (protons) with very high energies, originating outside the earth's atmosphere. Cosmic radiation is part of the natural background radiation. Some cosmic rays are more energetic than any man-made forms of radiation. (See neutrino.)

counter A general designation applied to radiation detection instruments or survey meters that detect and measure radiation in terms of individual ionizations, displaying them either as the accumulated total or their rate of occurrence. (See Geiger-Müller counter,

critical Capable of sustaining a chain reaction. (See criticality)

An assembly of sufficient fissionable material and moderator to sustain a fission chain reaction at a very low power level. This permits study of the behavior of the components of the assembly for various fissionable materials in different geometrical arrangements. (Compare nuclear reactor.)

critical experiment An experiment to verify or supplement calculations of the critical size and other physical data affecting a reactor design. The power is kept so low that a system for removing heat is not required.

A facility where critical experiments are conducted.

The smallest mass of fissionable material that will support a self-sustaining chain reaction under stated conditions.

The state of a nuclear reactor when it is sustaining a chain reaction. (See dry criticality, multiplication factor, prompt criticality, reactivity, wet criticality.)

[Symbol \sigma)] A measure of the probability that a NUCLEAR REACTION will occur. Usually measured in barns, it is the apparent (or effective) area presented by a target nucleus (or particle) to an oncoming particle or other nuclear radiation, such as a photon of gamma radiation.

[Symbol c] The basic unit to describe the intensity of radioactivity in a sample of material. The curie is equal to 37 billion disintegrations per second, which is approximately the rate of decay of 1 gram of radium. A curie is also a quantity of any nuclide having 1 curie of radioactivity. Named for Marie and Pierre Curie, who discovered radium in 1898. (Compare rem, roentgen.) (See Appendix.)

A common radiation survey meter used to determine exposure levels or to locate possible radiation hazards. (See monitor.)

A particle accelerator in which charged particles receive repeated synchronized accelerations by electrical fields as the particles spiral outward from their source. The particles are kept in the spiral by a powerful magnetic field. (Compare synchrocyclotron.)



A nuclide formed by the radioactive decay of another nuclide, which in this context is called the parent. (See radioactive series.) (See Appendix.)

decay cham A radioactive series.

decay heat The heat produced by the decay of radioactive nuclides. (See afterheat; decay, radioactive; SNAP.)

decay, radioactive The spontaneous transformation of one nuclide into a different nuclide or into a different energy state of the same nuclide. The process results in a decrease, with time, of the number of the original radioactive atoms in a sample. It involves the emission from the nucleus of alpha particles, beta particles (or electrons), or gamma rays; or the nuclear capture or ejection of orbital electrons; or fission. Also called radioactive disintegration. (See half-life, nuclear reaction, radioactive series.) (See Appendix.)

decontamination

The removal of radioactive contaminants from surfaces or equipment, as by cleaning and washing with chemicals. (See radioactive contamination.)

delayed neutrons

Neutrons emitted by radioactive fission products in a reactor over a period of seconds or minutes after a fission takes place. Fewer than 1% of the neutrons are delayed, the majority being prompt neutrons. Delayed neutrons are important considerations in reactor design and control. (See dollar.)

depleted fuel (See depleted uranium, spent fuel.)

depleted uranium Uranium having a smaller percentage of uranium-235 than the 0.7% found in natural uranium. It is obtained from the spent (used) fuel elements or as by-product taits, or residues, of uranium isotope separation. (Compare natural uranium, spent fuel.)

detector

Material or a device that is sensitive to radiation and can produce a response signal suitable for measurement or analysis. A radiation detection instrument.

deuterium

[Symbol ²H or D] An isotope of hydrogen whose nucleus contains one neutron and one proton and is therefore about twice as heavy as the nucleus of normal hydrogen, which is only a single proton. Deuterium is often referred to as heavy hydrogen; it occurs in nature as 1 atom to 6500 atoms of normal hydrogen. It is nonradioactive. (See heavy water, hydrogen.)

deuteron

The nucleus of deuterium. It contains one proton and one neutron.

A nuclear explosive used for peaceful purposes, tests or experiments. The term is used to distinguish these explosives from nuclear weapons, which are packaged units ready for transportation or use by military forces. (Compare nuclear weapons.)

(See gaseous diffusion.)

A nuclear power plant system in which the coolant or heat transfer fluid circulates first through the reactor and then directly to a turbine. (Compare indirectcycle reactor system.)

dirty bomb A fission bomb or any other weapon which would distribute relatively large amounts of radioactivity upon explosion, as distinguished from a fusion weapon. (Compare clean bomb.)

An electronic circuit which selects signal pulses according to their bulse height or voltage. It is used to delete extraneous radiation counts or background radiation, or as the basis for energy spectrum analysis.

disinfegration. Equivalent to radioactive decay.

distribution factor A term used to express the modification of the effect of radiation in a biological system attributable to the nonuniform distribution of an internally deposited isotope, such as radium's being concentrated in bones. (See absorbed dose, dose equivalent, quality factor, relative biological effectiveness.)

A unit of reactivity. One dollar is the maximum amount of reactivity in a reactor due to delayed neutrons alone. (See reactivity.) (See Appendix.)

The shift with temperature of the interaction rate between neutrons and reactor materials, such as fuel rods, structural materials, and fertile materials. The shift can appreciably affect the neutron density and hence the reactivity of reactors. (See neutron density.)

dose (See absorbed dose, biological dose, maximum permissible dose, threshold dose.)

dose equivalent A term used to express the amount of effective radiation when modifying factors have been considered. The product of absorbed dose multiplied by a quality factor multiplied by a distribution factor. It is expressed numerically in rems.

dose rate The radiation dose delivered per unit time and measured, for instance, in rems per hour. (See absorbed dose, rem.)

dosimeter A device that measures radiation dose, such as a film badge or ionization chamber. (See radiation dosimetry.)

(See radiation dosimetry.)

doubling time The time required for a breeder reactor to produce as much fissionable material as the amount usually contained in its core plus the amount tied up in its fuel cycle (fabrication, reprocessing, etc.). It is estimated as 10 to 20 years in typical reactors. (See breeder reactor, fuel cycle.)

dry criticality Reactor criticality achieved without a coolant. (Compare wet criticality; see criticality.)

dual-cycle
tor system

A reactor-turbine system in which part of the steam
fed to the turbine is generated directly in the reactor
and part in a separate heat exchanger. A combination
of direct-cycle and indirect-cycle reactor systems.

A reactor designed to achieve two purposes, for example, to produce both electricity and new fissionable material.

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effective half-life (See half-life, effective.)

effective (See multiplication factor.)

Einstein equation (See mass-energy equation.)

elastic scattering (See Compton effect, scattering.)

Radiation consisting of associated and interacting electric and magnetic waves that travel at the speed of light. Examples: light, radio waves, gamma rays, X rays. All can be transmitted through a vacuum. (Compare ionizing radiation; see quantum.)

[Symbol e] An elementary particle with a unit negative electrical charge and a mass \(^1\)_1837 that of the proton. Electrons surround the positively charged NUCLEUS and determine the chemical properties of the atom. Positive electrons, or positrons, also exist. (Compare antimatter; see pair production, shell.)

[Abbreviation EC] A mode of radioactive decay of a nuclide in which an orbital electron is captured by and merges with the nucleus, thus forming a new nuclide with the mass number unchanged but the atomic number decreased by 1. (See K-capture.)

[Abbreviation ev or eV] The amount of kinetic energy gained by an electron when it is accelerated through an electric potential difference of 1 volt. It is equivalent to 1.603×10^{-12} erg. It is a unit of energy, or work, not of voltage. (See Bev, Mev.) (See Appendix.)

One of the 103 known chemical substances that cannot be divided into simpler substances by chemical means. A substance whose atoms all have the same atomic number. Examples: hydrogen, lead, uranium. (Not to be confused with fuel element.) (See atom, matter, nuclide.) (See Appendix.)

The simplest particles of matter and radiation. Most are short-lived and do not exist under normal conditions (exceptions are electrons, neutrons, protons and neutrinos). Originally this term was applied to any particle that could not be subdivided, or to constituents of atoms; now it is applied to nucleons (protons and neutrons), electrons, mesons, muons, baryons, strange particles, and the anti-particles of each of these, and to photons, but not to alpha particles or deuterons. Also called fundamental particles.

end product (See radioactive series.)

The capability of doing work. (See kinetic energy, nuclear energy.)

Material in which the percentage of a given *isotope* present in a material has been artificially increased, so that it is higher than the percentage of that isotope naturally found in the material. Enriched *uranium* contains more of the fissionable isotope uranium-235 than the naturally occurring percentage (0.7%). (See *isotopic enrichment*.)

enrichment isotopic enrichment.

appropriate neutron An intermediate neutron.

apithermal reactor. An intermediate reactor.

equivalent ton (See TNT equivalent.)

excess reactivity More reactivity than that needed to achieve criticality Excess reactivity is built into a reactor (by using extra fuel) in order to compensate for fuel burnup and the accumulation of fission-product poisons during operation. (See criticality, reactivity.)

The state of a molecule, atom, electron or nucleus when it possesses more than its normal energy. Excess nuclear energy is often released as a gamma ray. Excess molecular energy may appear as fluorescence or heat. (Compare ground state.)

An area immediately surrounding a nuclear reactor where human habitation is prohibited to assure safety in the event of accident. (See low population zone.)

excursion A sudden, very rapid rise in the power level of a reactor caused by supercriticality. Excursions are usually quickly suppressed by the negative temperature coefficient of the reactor and/or by automatic control rods. (See safety rod, scram, temperature coefficient of reactivity.)

A reactor to test the design of new reactors. (Compare research reactor, test reactor.)



Air-borne particles containing radioactive material which fall to the ground following a nuclear explosion. "Local fallout" from nuclear detonations falls to the earth's surface within 24 hours after the detonation. "Tropospheric fallout" consists of material injected into the troposphere but not into the higher altitudes of the stratosphere. It does not fall out locally, but usually is deposited in relatively narrow bands around the earth at about the latitude of injection. "Stratospheric fallout" or "worldwide fallout" is that which is injected into the stratosphere and which then falls out relatively slowly over much of the earth's surface. (Compare background radiation.)

A reactor that operates with fast neutrons and produces more fissionable material than it consumes. (See breeder reactor, fast neutron, fast reactor.)

fast neutron A neutron with energy greater than approximately 100.000 electron volts. (Compare intermediate neutron, prompt neutron, thermal neutron.)

A reactor in which the fission chain reaction is sustained primarily by fast neutrons rather than by thermal or intermediate neutrons. Fast reactors contain little or no moderator to slow down the neutrons from the speeds at which they are ejected from fissioning nuclei. (Compare intermediate reactor, thermal reactor.)

Refined uranium or thorium metal or their pure compounds in a form suitable for use in nuclear reactor fuel elements or as feed for uranium enrichment processes. (See enriched material.)

A material, not itself fissionable by thermal neutrons, which can be converted into a fissile material by irradiation in a reactor. There are two basic fertile materials, uranium-238 and thorium-232. When these fertile materials capture neutrons, they are partially converted into fissile plutonium-239 and uranium-233, respectively. (Compare fissile material.)

A light-tight package of photographic film worn like a badge by workers in nuclear industry or research, used to measure possible exposure to IONIZING RA-DIATION. The absorbed dose can be calculated by the degree of film darkening caused by the irradiation. (Compare ionization chamber; see dosimeter.)

The luminous ball of hot gases that forms a few millionths of a second after a nuclear explosion. (See atomic cloud.)

While sometimes used as a synonym for fissionable material, this term has also acquired a more restricted meaning, namely, any material fissionable by neutrons of all energies, including (and especially) thermal (slow) neutrons as well as fast neutrons; for example, uranium-235 and plutonium-239. (See fissionable material.)

The splitting of a heavy nucleus into two approximately equal parts (which are nuclei of lighter elements), accompanied by the release of a relatively large amount of energy and generally one or more neutrons. Fission can occur spontaneously, but usually is caused by nuclear absorption of gamma rays, neutrons or other particles. (Compare fusion; see chain reaction, nuclear reaction.)

fission fragments The two nuclei which are formed by the fission of a nucleus. Also referred to as primary fission products. They are of medium atomic weight, and are radioactive. (See fission products.)

The absorption or capture of neutrons by fission products in a reactor, decreasing its reactivity. (See poison.)

The nuclei (fission fragments) formed by the fission of heavy elements, plus the nuclides formed by the fission fragments' radioactive decay. (Compare fission fragments; see decay, radioactive.) (See Appendix.)

An atomic bomb.

The amount of energy released by fission in a thermonuclear (fusion) explosion as distinct from that released by fusion. Also the amount (percentage) of a given nuclide produced by fission. (Compare yield; see thermonuclear reaction, TNT equivalent.)

Commonly used as a synonym for fissile material. The meaning of this term also has been extended to include material that can be fissioned by fast neutrons only, such as uranium-238. Used in reactor operations to mean fuel. (Compare fertile material, fissile material.)

A skin burn due to a flash of thermal radiation. It can be distinguished from a flame burn by the fact it occurs on unshielded parts of the body that are in a direct line with the origin of the thermal radiation. (See ionizing radiation, thermal burn.)

A type of reactor (for example, a fused-salt reactor) whose fuel is in fluid form.

fluidized bed A reactor design in which the fuel ranges in size from small particles to pellets. Although the fuel particles are solid, their entire mass behaves like a fluid because a stream of liquid or gas coolant keeps them moving.

Many substances can absorb energy (as from X rays, ultraviolet light, or radioactive particles), and immediately emit this energy as an electromagnetic photon, often of visible light. This emission is fluorescence. The emitting substances are said to be fluorescent. (Compare luminescence, scintillation; see excited state.)

fluoroscope

An instrument with a fluorescent screen suitably mounted with respect to an X-ray tube, used for immediate indirect viewing of internal organs of the body, internal structures in apparatus or masses of metals, by means of X rays. A fluorescent image, really a kind of X-ray shadow picture, is produced. (See X rav.)

A measure of the intensity of neutron radiation. It is the number of neutrons passing through 1 square centimeter of a given target in 1 second. Expressed as nv, where n = the number of neutrons per cubic centimeter and v = their velocity in centimeters per second. (See integrated neutron flux, intensity, neutron density.)

The pathways by which any material (such as radioactive material from fallout) passes from the first absorbing organism through plants and animals to

Fissionable material used or usable to produce energy in a reactor. Also applied to a mixture, such as natural uranium, in which only part of the atoms are readily fissionable, if the mixture can be made to sustain a chain reaction. (See fissionable material.)

The series of steps involved in supplying fuel for nuclear power reactors. It includes mining, refining, the original fabrication of fuel elements, their use in a reactor, chemical processing to recover the fissionable material remaining in the spent fuel, reenrichment of the fuel material, and refabrication into new fuel elements.

A rod, tube, plate, or other mechanical shape or form into which nuclear fuel is fabricated for use in a reactor. (Not to be confused with element.) (See nuclear reactor.)

The processing of reactor fuel to recover the unused fissionable material. (See recycling, spent fuel.)

elementary particles.

A type of reactor that uses molten salts of uranium for both fuel and coolant.

The formation of a heavier nucleus from two lighter ones (such as hydrogen isotopes), with the attendant release of energy (as in a hydrogen bomb). (Compare fission; see nuclear reaction, Sherwood, thermonuclear reaction.)

An atomic weapon using the energy of nuclear fusion. such as a hydrogen bomb,



gauging.

[Symbol γ (gamma)] High-energy, short-wavelength electromagnetic radiation. Gamma radiation frequently accompanies alpha and beta emissions and always accompanies fission. Gamma rays are very penetrating and are best stopped or shielded against by dense materials, such as lead or depleted uranium. Gamma rays are essentially similar to X rays, but are usually more energetic, and are nuclear in origin. (Compare X ray; see decay radioactive, excited state, photon.)

A method of isotopic separation in which heavy gaseous atoms or molecules are separated from light ones by centrifugal force. (See isotope separation.)

A nuclear reactor in which a gas is the coolant.

A method of isotopic separation based on the fact that gas atoms or molecules with different masses will diffuse through a porous barrier (or membrane) at different rates. The method is used by the AEC to separate uranium-235 from uranium-238; it requires large gaseous-diffusion plants and enormous amounts of electric power. (See cascade, isotope separation. uranium hexafluoride.)

The measurement of the thickness, density or quantity of material by the amount of radiation it absorbs. This is the most common use of radioactive isotopes in industry. Also spelled gaging.

Geiger-Müller Geiger-Müller tubel A radiation detection and measuring instrument. It consists of a gas-filled (Geiger-Müller) tube containing electrodes, between which there is an electrical voltage but no current flowing. When ionizing radiation passes through the tube, a short, intense pulse of current passes from the negative electrode to the positive electrode and is measured or counted. The number of pulses per second measures the intensity of radiation. It is also often known as Geiger counter; it was named for Hans Geiger and W. Müller who invented it in the 1920s. (See counter.)

generation time

The mean time for the neutrons produced by one fission to produce fissions again in a chain reaction. (See chain reaction.)

of radiation

Radiation effects that can be transferred from parent to offspring. Any radiation-caused changes in the genetic material of sex cells. (Compare radiomutation, somatic effects of radiation.)

geometry

The spatial configuration, pattern or relationship of components in an experiment or apparatus. In reactor technology, the term refers to the shape and size of fuel elements, moderator and reflector and their location with respect to each other. In nuclear physics, it refers to the arrangement of source and detecting equipment. In counting and scanning, the term commonly indicates the percentage of the radiation leaving a sample which reaches the sensitive volume of a counter. (See *lattice*.)

glory hole A beam hole.

glove hox A sealed box in which workers, using gloves attached to and passing through openings in the box, can handle radioactive materials safely from the outside.

graphite A very pure form of carbon used as a moderator in nuclear reactors.

green salt uranium tetrafluoride.

ground state

The state of a nucleus, atom or molecule at its lowest (normal) energy level. (Compare excited state.)

ground zero

The point on the surface of land or water vertically below or above the center of a burst of a nuclear explosion. For a burst over or under water, the term surface zero is preferable.



h-bomb A hydrogen bomb.

half-life The time in which half the atoms of a particular radioactive substance disintegrate to another nuclear form. Measured half-lives vary from millionths of a second to billions of years. (See decay, radioactive.) (See Appendix.)

half-life, biological (See biological half-life.)

half-life, effective The time required for a radionuclide contained in a biological system, such as a man or an animal, to reduce its activity by half as a combined result of radioactive decay and biological elimination. (Compare biological half-life; see half-life.)

The thickness of any given absorber that will reduce the intensity of a beam of radiation to one-half its initial value.

half-time (See residence time.)

The thickness of any particular material necessary to reduce the *dose rate* of an X-ray beam to one-half its original value.

hand and foot counter

A monitoring device arranged to give a rapid radiation survey of hands and feet of persons working with radioactive materials, to detect radioactive contamination. (See counter, monitor, personnel monitoring, radioactive contamination.)

health physics The science concerned with recognition, evaluation, and control of health hazards from ionizing radiation.

heat exchanger Any device that transfers heat from one fluid (liquid or gas) to another or to the environment.

heat sink Anything that absorbs heat; usually part of the environment, such as the air, a river, or outer space.

heavy hydrogen deuterium.

heavy water

[Symbol D_2O] Water containing significantly more than the natural proportion (one in 6500) of heavy hydrogen (deuterium) atoms to ordinary hydrogen atoms. Heavy water is used as a moderator in some reactors because it slows down neutrons effectively and also has a low cross section for absorption of neutrons.

heavy-watermoderated reactor

A reactor that uses *heavy water* as its moderator. Heavy water is an excellent moderator and thus permits the use of inexpensive natural (unenriched) uranium as a fuel.

heterogeneous reactor

A reactor in which the fuel is separate from the moderator and is arranged in discrete bodies, such as *fuel elements*. Most reactors are heterogeneous. (Compare homogeneous reactor.)

homogeneous reactor

A reactor in which the fuel is mixed with or dissolved in the moderator or coolant. Example: a fused-salt reactor. (Compare heterogeneous reactor.)

A protective device, usually providing special ventilation to carry away gases, in which dangerous chemical, biological, or radioactive materials can be safely handled.

hot Highly radioactive.

hot cell A heavily shielded enclosure in which radioactive materials can be handled by persons using remote manipulators and viewing the materials through shielded windows or periscopes. (See shield.)

A laboratory designed for the safe handling of radioactive materials, and usually containing one or more hot cells.

hot spot A surface area of higher-than-average *radioactivity*. Also a part of a *fuel element* surface that has become overheated.

[Symbol H] The lightest element, No. 1 in the atomic series. It has two natural *isotopes* of atomic weights 1 and 2. The first is ordinary hydrogen, or light hydrogen; the second is *deuterium*, or heavy hydrogen. A third isotope, *tritium*, atomic weight 3, is a radioactive form produced in reactors by bombarding lithium-6 with neutrons. (See Appendix.)

hydrogen bomb A nuclear weapon that derives its energy largely from fusion. (See thermonuclear reaction.)

hyperon One of a class of short-lived elementary particles with a mass greater than that of a proton and less than that of a deuteron. All hyperons are unstable and yield a nucleon as a decay product. (See baryon.)



implosion weapon A weapon in which a quantity of fissionable material, less than a critical mass at ordinary pressure, has its volume suddenly reduced by compression (a step accomplished by using chemical explosives) so that it becomes supercritical, producing a nuclear explosion. (See supercritical mass.)

indirect-cycle A reactor system in which a heat exchanger transfers heat from the reactor coolant to a second fluid which then drives a turbine. (Compare closed-cycle reactor system, direct-cycle reactor system.)

Radioactivity that is created when substances are bombarded with neutrons, as from a nuclear explosion or in a reactor, or with charged particles produced by accelerators. (See activation.)

(See scattering.)

initial nuclear Radiation emitted from the fireball of a nuclear exradiation plosive during the first minute (an arbitrary time interval) after detonation. (Compare residual nuclear radiation.)

A term used to designate experiments or equipment inside a reactor. (See pile.)

in-pile loop

(See loop.)

integrated Flux multiplied by time, usually expressed as nvt, when n = the number of neutrons per cubic centimeter, v = their velocity in centimeters per second, and t =time in seconds. (See flux.)

The energy or the number of photons or particles of any radiation incident upon a unit area or flowing through a unit of solid material per unit of time. In connection with radioactivity, the number of atoms disintegrating per unit of time. (See flux.)

intermediate A neutron having energy greater than that of a thermal neutron but less than that of a fast neutron. The range is generally considered to be between about 0.5 and 100,000 electron volts. (Compare fast neutron. thermal neutron.)

intermediate A reactor in which the chain reaction is sustained mainly by intermediate neutrons. (Compare fast reactor, thermal reactor.)

Solid or encapsulated radiation sources, made in the form of seeds, wires or other shapes to be inserted directly into tissue that is to be irradiated. (See brachytherapy.)

An atom or molecule that has lost or gained one or more electrons. By this ionization it becomes electrically charged. Examples: an alpha particle, which is a helium atom minus two electrons; a proton, which is a hydrogen atom minus its electron. (Compare atom, elementary particles, molecule.)

ion engine An engine which provides thrust by expelling accelerated or high velocity ions. Ion engines using energy provided by nuclear reactors are proposed for space vehicles.

ion exchange A chemical process involving the reversible interchange of various ions between a solution and a solid material, usually a plastic or a resin. It is used to separate and purify chemicals, such as fission products, rare earths, etc., in solutions.

A closely associated positive ion and negative ion (usually an electron) having charges of the same magnitude and formed from a neutral atom or molecule by radiation. (Compare pair production.)

The process of adding one or more electrons to, or removing one or more electrons from, atoms or molecules, thereby creating ions. High temperatures, electrical discharges, or nuclear radiations can cause ionization.

An instrument that detects and measures ionizing radiation by measuring the electrical current that flows when radiation ionizes gas in a chamber, making the gas a conductor of the electricity. (Compare chemical dosimeter, film badge.)

ionizing event

Any occurrence in which an ion or group of ions is produced; for example, by passage of a charged particle through matter.

Any radiation displacing electrons from atoms or molecules, thereby producing ions. Examples: alpha, beta, gamma radiation, short-wave ultraviolet light. Ionizing radiation may produce severe skin or tissue damage. (See radiation, radiation burn, radiation illness.)

Exposure to radiation, as in a nuclear reactor. (See spent fuel.)

One of two or more nuclides having about the same atomic mass but different atomic numbers, hence different chemical properties. Example: \(^{14}_6\text{C}\), \(^{14}_7\text{N}\), and \(^{14}_8\text{O}\) are isobars. (Compare isotope.)

isodose curves

Curves or lines drawn to connect points where identical amounts of radiant energy reach a certain depth in tissue.

Imaginary lines on the surface of the ground or water, or lines drawn on a map, joining points in a radiation field which have the same radiation intensity at a given time.

One of two or more nuclides with the same numbers of neutrons and protons in their nuclei, but with different energies; a nuclide in the excited state and a similar nuclide in the ground state are isomers. (Compare isotope.)

One of several nuclides having the same number of neutrons but a different number of protons in their nuclei. Example: potassium-39 (39K20) and calcium-40 $\binom{40}{20}$ Ca₂₀) are isotones. (Compare *isotope*.)

One of two or more atoms with the same atomic number (the same chemical element) but with different atomic weights. An equivalent statement is that the nuclei of isotopes have the same number of protons but different numbers of neutrons. Thus, ¹²₆C, ¹³₆C, and ¹⁴₆C are isotopes of the element carbon, the subscripts denoting their common atomic numbers, the superscripts denoting the differing mass numbers, or approximate atomic weights. Isotopes usually have very nearly the same chemical properties, but somewhat different physical properties. (Compare isobar, isotone, nuclide; see radioisotope.) (See Appendix.)

isotope farm A carbon-14 growth chamber, or greenhouse, arranged as a closed system in which plants can be grown in a carbon-14 dioxide (14CO₂) atmosphere and thus become labeled with ¹⁴C. Isotope farms also can be used with other labeled materials, such as heavy water (D₂O), phosphorus-35 (35P), etc., to produce biochemically labeled compounds. (See tracer, isotopic.)

isotope separation

The process of separating isotopes from one another. or changing their relative abundances, as by gaseous diffusion or electromagnetic separation. All systems are based on the mass differences of the isotopes. Isotope separation is a step in the isotopic enrichment process. (See mass spectrometer.)

isotopic enrichment. A process by which the relative abundances of the isotopes of a given element are altered, thus producing a form of the element which has been enriched in one particular isotope. Example: enriching natural uranium in the uranium-235 isotope. (See enriched material, gaseous diffusion.)



K-capture

The capture by an atomic nucleus of an orbital electron from the first (innermost) orbit or shell, or Kshell, surrounding the nucleus. (See atom, capture. electron capture.)

(See kaon.)

kaon An elementary particle (contraction of K-meson), A heavy meson with a mass about 970 times that of an electron. (See meson.)

A prefix that multiplies a basic unit by 1000. (See Appendix.)

kiloton energy

The energy of a nuclear explosion which is equivalent to that of an explosion of 1000 tons of TNT. (See TNT equivalent, vield.)

kinetic energy

Energy due to motion.



(See tracer, isotopic.)

lanthanide series The series of elements beginning with lanthanum, Element No. 57, and continuing through lutetium, Element No. 71, which together occupy one position in the Periodic Table of the elements. These are the "rare earths", which all have chemical properties similar to lanthanum. They also are called the "lanthanides". (Compare actinide series; see rare earths.) (See Appendix.)

aftice An orderly array or pattern of nuclear fuel elements and moderator in a reactor or critical assembly. Also, the arrangement of atoms in a crystal. (See geometry.)

leakage

In nuclear engineering, the escape of neutrons from a reactor core. Leakage lowers a reactor's reactivity. (See neutron economy.)

lepton One of a class of light elementary particles (having small mass). Specifically, an electron, a positron, a neutrino, an antineutrino, a muon or an antimuon. (Compare baryon, meson.)

lethal dose

A dose of *ionizing radiation* sufficient to cause death. Median lethal dose (MLD or LD-50) is the dose required to kill within a specified period of time (usually 30 days) half of the individuals in a large group of organisms similarly exposed. The LD-50/30 for man is about 400 - 450 roentgens. (See biological dose, roentgen, survival curve, threshold dose.)

licensed material

Source material, special nuclear material, or byproduct material received, possessed, used or transferred under a general or special license issued by the Atomic Energy Commission or a state.

light hydrogen Ordinary hydrogen.

light water

Ordinary water (H2O), as distinguished from heavy water (D₂O).

Short for linear accelerator.

linear accelerator

A long straight tube (or series of tubes) in which charged particles (ordinarily electrons or protons) gain in energy by the action of oscillating electromagnetic fields. (Compare cyclotron; see accelerator.)

linear energy transfer

(Acronym LET) A measure of the ability of biological material to absorb ionizing radiation; the radiation energy lost per unit length of path through a biological material. In general, the higher the LET value, the greater is the relative biological effectiveness of the radiation in that material. (See biological dose, relative biological effectiveness.)

load factor

The ratio of average load carried by an electric power plant or system during a specific period to its peak load during that period. (Compare plant factor.)

A closed circuit of pipe in which materials and components may be placed to test them under different conditions of temperature, irradiation, etc. If part of the loop and contents are placed in a reactor, it is called an in-pile loop.

low-level analysis (low-level counting)

A procedure to measure the radioactive content of materials with very low levels of activity, using sensitive detecting instruments and with good shielding to eliminate the effects of background radiation and cosmic rays. (See coincidence counting, counter.)

low population zone

An area of low population density sometimes required around a nuclear installation. The number and density of residents is of concern in providing, with reasonable probability, that effective protection measures can be taken if a serious accident should occur. (See exclusion area.)

luminescence Emission of light produced by the action of biological or chemical processes or by radiation, or any other cause except high temperature (which produces incandescence). (Compare fluorescence, scintillation; see excited state, radioluminescence.)



magnetic bottle

A magnetic field used to confine or contain a plasma in controlled fusion (thermonuclear) experiments. (See controlled thermonuclear reaction, plasma.)

magnetic mirror

A magnetic field used in controlled fusion experiments to reflect charged particles back into the central region of a magnetic bottle. (Compare pinch effect; see controlled thermonuclear reaction.)

Manhattan Project

The War Department program during World War II that produced the first atomic bombs. The term originated in the code-name, "Manhattan Engineer District", which was used to conceal the nature of the secret work underway. The Atomic Energy Commission, a civilian agency, succeeded the military unit Jan. 1, 1947.

manipulators

Mechanical devices used for safe handling of radioactive materials. Frequently they are remotely operated from behind a protective shield. (See hot cell.)

The quantity of *matter* in a body. Often used as a synonym for weight, which, strictly speaking, is the force exerted by a body under the influence of gravity. (See atomic mass unit, atomic weight.)

mass defect

The difference between the atomic mass and the mass number of a nuclide, (See packing fraction.)

mass-energy equation mass-energy equivalence)

mass-energy

relation)

The statement developed by Albert Einstein, Germanborn American physicist, that "the mass of a body is a measure of its energy content," as an extension of his 1905 Special Theory of Relativity. The statement was subsequently verified experimentally by measurements of mass and energy in nuclear reactions. The equation, usually given as: $E = mc^2$, shows that when the energy of a body changes by an amount, E. (no matter what form the energy takes) the mass, m, of the body will change by an amount equal to E/c^2 . (The factor c^2 , the square of the speed of light in a vacuum, may be regarded as the conversion factor relating units of mass and energy.) This equation predicted the possibility of releasing enormous amounts of energy (in the atomic bomb) by the conversion of mass to energy. It is also called the Einstein equation.

mass number

[Symbol A] The sum of the neutrons and protons in a NUCLEUS. It is the nearest whole number to an atom's atomic weight. For instance, the mass number of uranium-235 is 235. (Compare atomic number.)

mass spectrometer

mass spectrograph. Two related devices for detecting and analyzing isotopes. They separate nuclei that have different chargeto-mass ratios by passing the nuclei through electrical and magnetic fields. (See isotope separation.)

The substance of which a physical object is composed. All materials in the universe have the same inner nature, that is, they are composed of atoms, arranged in different (and often complex) ways: the specific atoms and the specific arrangements identify the various materials. (See atom, element.)

maximum credible accident

The most serious reactor accident that can reasonably be imagined from any adverse combination of equipment malfunction, operating errors, and other foreseeable causes. The term is used to analyze the safety characteristics of a reactor. Reactors are designed to be safe even if a maximum credible accident should occur.

maximum bermissible concentration (MPC)

The amount of radioactive material in air, water, or food which might be expected to result in a maximum permissible dose to persons consuming them at a standard rate of intake. An obsolescent term. (See radiation protection guide, radioactivity concentration guide.)

maximum permissible dose (MPD) (maximum permissible exposure

That dose of ionizing radiation established by competent authorities as an amount below which there is no reasonable expectation of risk to human health, and which at the same time is somewhat below the lowest level at which a definite hazard is believed to exist. An obsolescent term. (See radiation protection guide.)

mean free path

The average distance traveled by a particle, atom, or molecule between collisions or interactions. (See collision.)

mean life

The average time during which an atom, an excited nucleus, a radionuclide or a particle exists in a particular form. (See scattering.)

median lethal dose

(See lethal dose.)

A prefix that multiplies a basic unit by one million. (See Appendix.)

megaton energy

The energy of a nuclear explosion which is equivalent to that of an explosion of one million tons (or 1000 kilotons) of TNT. (See TNT equivalent, yield.)

megawatt-day per ton

A unit used for expressing the burnup of fuel in a reactor; specifically, the number of megawatt-days of heat output per metric ton of fuel in the reactor. (See burnub.)

One of a class of medium-mass, short-lived elementary particles with a mass between that of the electron and that of the proton. Examples: pi-mesons (pions) and K-mesons (kaons). (Compare baryon, lepton.)

Mev One million (or 10⁶) electron volts. (Also written as MeV.) (See *electron volt.*) (See Appendix.)

micro A prefix that divides a basic unit by one million. (See Appendix.)

micromicro (See pico.)

A prefix that divides a basic unit by one thousand. (See Appendix.)

A material, such as ordinary water, heavy water or graphite, used in a reactor to slow down high-velocity neutrons, thus increasing the likelihood of further fission. (Compare reflector; see absorber, thermal neutrons.)

molecule A group of atoms held together by chemical forces. The atoms in the molecule may be identical, as in H_2 , S_2 , and S_8 , or different, as in H_2 O and CO_2 . A molecule is the smallest unit of matter which can exist by itself and retain all its chemical properties. (Compare atom, ion.)

molten sait reactor A fused-salt reactor.

monitor

An instrument that measures the level of *ionizing radiation* in an area. (See *radiation detection instrument*, radiation monitoring.)

(or constant)

[Symbol k] The ratio of the number of neutrons present in a reactor in any one neutron generation to that in the immediately preceding generation. Criticality is achieved when this ratio is equal to one. The "infinite" multiplication factor is the ratio in a theoretical system from which there is no leakage, that is, a reactor of infinite size; for an actual reactor (from which leakage does occur), the term effective multiplication factor, which is the ratio based on neutrons available after leakage, is commonly used. (See generation time, leakage, neutron, reactivity.)

mu-meson (See muon.)

(Contraction of *mu-meson*.) An *elementary particle*, classed as a lepton (not as a meson), with 207 times the mass of an electron. It may have a single positive or negative charge. (See *lepton*, *meson*.)

mushroom cloud (See atomic cloud.)

mutation A permanent transmissible change in the characteristics of an offspring from those of its parents. (Compare radiomutation.)

0

A prefix that divides a basic unit by one billion (10%). (See Appendix.)

reactor in which the *coolant* (usually water) is made to circulate without pumping, that is, by natural convection resulting from the different densities of its cold and reactor-heated portions.

natural radiation, background radiation. natural radioactivity

uranium uranium uranium as found in nature, containing 0.7% of ²³⁵U, 99.3% of ²³⁸U, and a trace of ²³⁴U. It is also called normal uranium. (See uranium.)

negative temperature (See temperature coefficient of reactivity.)

reptunium series (sequence)

The series of nuclides resulting from the radioactive decay of the man-made nuclide, neptunium-237. Many other man-made nuclides decay into this sequence.

The end-product of the series is stable bismuth-209, which is the only nuclide in the series that occurs in nature. (See decay, radioactive; radioactive series.)

(See Appendix.)

[Symbol ν (nu)] An electrically neutral elementary particle with a negligible mass. It interacts very weakly with matter and hence is difficult to detect. It is produced in many nuclear reactions, for example, in beta decay, and has high penetrating power; neutrinos from the sun usually pass right through the earth. (See cosmic rays, neutron, nuclear reaction.)

neutron [Symbol n] An uncharged elementary particle with a mass slightly greater than that of the proton, and found in the nucleus of every atom heavier than hydrogen. A free neutron is unstable and decays with a half-life of about 13 minutes into an electron, proton, and neutrino. Neutrons sustain the fission chain

> reaction in a nuclear reactor. (See fast neutron, intermediate neutron, and thermal neutron.)

neutron activation Activation analysis in which neutrons are the activating agent.

neutron capture The process in which an atomic nucleus absorbs or captures a neutron. The probability that a given material will capture neutrons is measured by its neutron capture cross section, which depends on the energy of the neutrons and on the nature of the material. (See capture, nuclear reaction, radiative capture.)

neutron density The number of neutrons per cubic centimeter in the core of a reactor. (See flux.)

neutron economy The degree to which neutrons in a reactor are used for desired ends instead of being lost by leakage or nonproductive absorption. The ends may include propagation of the chain reaction, converting fertile to fissionable material, producing isotopes, or research. (See leakage, reactivity.)

neutron flux (See flux.)

testing

nondestructive Testing to detect internal and concealed defects in materials using techniques that do not damage or destroy the items being tested. X rays, isotopic radiation and ultrasonics are frequently used.

normal tranium natural uranium.

nuclear battery A radioisotopic generator.

nuclear energy The energy liberated by a nuclear reaction (fission or fusion) or by radioactive decay. (See decay, radioactive; fission; fusion; nuclear explosive; nuclear reactor.)

nuclear explosive An explosive based on fission or fusion of atomic nuclei. (See device, nuclear; nuclear weapons.)

nuclear fission (See fission.) nuclear fusion (See fusion.)

nuclear power plant Any device, machine, or assembly that converts nuclear energy into some form of useful power, such as mechanical or electrical power. In a nuclear electric power plant, heat produced by a reactor is generally used to make steam to drive a turbine that in

nuclear reaction A reaction involving a change in an atomic nucleus, such as fission, fusion, neutron capture, or radioactive decay, as distinct from a chemical reaction, which is limited to changes in the electron structure surrounding the nucleus. (Compare thermonuclear reaction.)

turn drives an electric generator.

nuclear reactor A device in which a fission chain reaction can be initiated, maintained, and controlled. Its essential component is a core with fissionable fuel. It usually has a moderator, a reflector, shielding, coolant, and control mechanisms. Sometimes called an atomic "furnace", it is the basic machine of nuclear energy. (See fission.)

nuclear rocket. A rocket powered by an engine that obtains energy for heating a propellant fluid (such as hydrogen) from a nuclear reactor, rather than from chemical combustion. (See Rover.)

nuclear Superheating the steam produced in a reactor by using additional heat from a reactor. Two methods are superheating commonly employed: recirculating the steam through the same core in which it is first produced (integral superheating) or passing the steam through a second and separate reactor. (See superheating.)

nuclear weapons A collective term for atomic bombs and hydrogen bombs. Any weapons based on a nuclear explosive. (Compare device, nuclear.)

nuclei Plural of nucleus.

nucleon A constituent of an atomic nucleus, that is, a proton or a neutron.

nucleonics The science and technology of nuclear energy and its applications.

nucleus The small, positively charged core of an atom. It is only about $\frac{1}{10.000}$ the diameter of the atom but contains nearly all the atom's mass. All nuclei contain both protons and neutrons, except the nucleus of ordinary hydrogen, which consists of a single proton.

nuclide A general term applicable to all atomic forms of the elements. The term is often erroneously used as a synonym for "isotope", which properly has a more limited definition. Whereas isotopes are the various forms of a single element (hence are a family of nuclides) and all have the same atomic number and number of protons, nuclides comprise all the isotopic forms of all the elements. Nuclides are distinguished by their atomic number, atomic mass, and energy state. (Compare element, isotope.) (See Appendix.)



open-cycle reactor

A reactor system in which the coolant passes through the reactor core only once and is then discarded. (Compare closed-cycle reactor system.)

orange oxide

uranium trioxide.

The region occupied by an electron as it moves about the nucleus of an atom. (See shell.)

organic-cooled

A reactor that uses organic chemicals, such as mixtures of polyphenyls (diphenyls and terphenyls), as coolant.

overpressure The transient pressure over and above atmospheric pressure caused by a shock wave from a nuclear explosion. (See shock wave.)



package power A small nuclear power plant designed to be crated in packages small enough to be conveniently transported to remote locations.

packing fraction The difference between the actual mass of a nuclide and the nearest whole number, divided by the mass number, A; or (M-A)/A. An equivalent statement is that it is the mass defect divided by the mass number. It is positive for most nuclides with mass number less than 12 and more than 180, which therefore tend to be less stable, and negative for most other nuclides, which tend to be more stable.

pair production The transformation of the kinetic energy of a highenergy photon or particle into mass, producing a particle and its antiparticle, such as an electron and positron. (Compare ion pair; see mass-energy equivalence.)

parasitic capture Any absorption (as in a reactor) of neutrons in reactions which do not cause further fission or the production of new fissionable material. In a reactor the process is undesirable. (See absorption, capture, neutron economy.)

parent A radionuclide that upon radioactive decay or disintegration yields a specific nuclide (the daughter). either directly or as a later member of a radioactive series. (See daughter, radioactive series.) (See Appendix.)

particle A minute constituent of matter, generally one with a measurable mass. The primary particles involved in radioactivity are alpha particles, beta particles, neutrons, and protons. (Compare antiparticle, photon; see charged particle, elementary particles, ion, radiation.)

particle accelerator

An accelerator.

pebble bed reactor A reactor in which the fissionable fuel (and sometimes also the moderator) is in the form of packed or randomly placed pellets, which are cooled by gas or liquid.

penetrometer

A simple device for measuring the penetrating power of a beam of X rays or other penetrating RADIATION by comparing transmission through various absorbers. (See absorber.)

The time required for one cycle of a regularly repeated series of events. In a nuclear reactor, it is the time required for the power level to change by the factor 2.718, which is known as e (the base of natural logarithms). (See Periodic Table.)

Periodic Table (Periodic Chart)

A table or chart listing all the elements, arranged in order of increasing atomic numbers and grouped by similar physical and chemical characteristics into "periods". The table is based on the chemical law that the physical or chemical properties of the elements are periodic (regularly repeated) functions of their atomic weights, first proposed by the Russian chemist, Dmitri I. Mendeleev, in 1869. (See Appendix.)

permissible dose

(See maximum permissible dose, radiation protection guide.)

personnel monitoring Determination by either physical or biological measurement of the amount of ionizing radiation to which an individual has been exposed, such as by measuring the darkening of a film badge or performing a radon breath analysis. (Compare radiation monitoring; see hand and foot counter.)

phantom A volume of material approximating as closely as possible the density and effective atomic number of living tissue, used in biological experiments involving radiation.

phosphor A luminescent substance; a material capable of emitting light when stimulated by radiation. (See scintillation.)

photon The carrier of a quantum of electromagnetic energy. Photons have an effective momentum but no mass or electrical charge. (See radiation, quantum.)

pico A prefix that divides a basic unit by one trillion (10^{12}) . Same as *micromicro*. (See Appendix.)

pig A heavily shielded container (usually lead) used to ship or store radioactive materials.

pile Old term for nuclear reactor. This name was used because the first reactor was built by piling up graphite blocks and natural uranium.

pi-meson (See bion.)

pinch effect. In controlled fusion experiments, the effect obtained when an electric current, flowing through a column of plasma, produces a magnetic field that confines and compresses the plasma. (Compare magnetic bottle; see controlled thermonuclear reaction, plasma, Sherwood.)

An elementary particle (contraction of pi-meson). The mass of a charged (positive or negative) pion is about 273 times that of an electron; that of an electrically neutral pion is 264 times that of an electron. (See meson.)

plant factor

The ratio of the average power load of an electric power plant to its rated capacity. Sometimes called capacity factor. (Compare load factor.)

plasma An electrically neutral gaseous mixture of positive and negative ions. Sometimes called the "fourth state of matter", since it behaves differently from solids, liquids and gases. High-temperature plasmas are used in controlled fusion experiments. (See charged barticle.)

Plowshare The Atomic Energy Commission program of research and development on peaceful uses of nuclear explosives. The possible uses include large-scale excavation, such as for canals and harbors, crushing ore bodies, and producing heavy transuranic isotopes. The term is based on a Biblical reference: Isaiah 2: 4.

plutonium [Symbol Pu] A heavy, radioactive, man-made, metallic element with atomic number 94. Its most important isotope is fissionable plutonium-239, produced by neutron irradiation of uranium-238. It is used for reactor fuel and in weapons. (See Appendix.)

poison Any material of high absorption cross section that absorbs neutrons unproductively and hence removes them from the fission chain reaction in a reactor, decreasing its reactivity. (Compare burnable poison.)

pool reactor A reactor in which the fuel elements are suspended in a pool of water that serves as the reflector, moderator, and coolant. Popularly called a swimming pool reactor, it is usually used for research and training. (Compare tank reactor.)

An opening in a research reactor through which objects are inserted for irradiation or from which beams of radiation emerge for experimental use.

positivo temperature coefficient

(See temperature coefficient of reactivity.)

[Symbol β^+ (beta-plus)] An elementary particle with the mass of an electron but charged positively. It is the "antielectron". It is emitted in some radioactive disintegrations and is formed in pair production by the interaction of high-energy gamma rays with matter. (See antimatter, electron, pair production.)

power density

The rate of heat generated per unit volume of a reactor core. (See specific power.)

power reactor A reactor designed to produce useful nuclear power, as distinguished from reactors used primarily for research or for producing radiation or fissionable materials. (Compare production reactor, research reactor.)

pressure suppression (See vapor suppression.)

reactor

pressure-tube A reactor in which the fuel elements are located inside tubes containing coolant circulating at high pressure. The tube assembly is surrounded by a tank containing the moderator at low pressure.

A strong-walled container housing the core of most types of power reactors; it usually also contains moderator, reflector, thermal shield, and control rods. (Compare containment vessel.)

pressurized water reactor

A power reactor in which heat is transferred from the core to a heat exchanger by water kept under high pressure to achieve high temperature without boiling in the primary system. Steam is generated in a secondary circuit. Many reactors producing electric power are pressurized water reactors.

primary fission products

fission fragments.

probability

(See cross section.)

process heat reactor

A reactor that produces heat for use in manufacturing processes.

production reactor

A reactor designed primarily for large-scale production of plutonium-239 by neutron irradiation of uranium-238. Also a reactor used primarily for the production of radioactive isotopes. (Compare power reactor, research reactor.)

prompt criticality

The state of a reactor when the fission chain reaction is sustained solely by prompt neutrons, that is, without the help of delayed neutrons. (See criticality.)

prompt neutrons

Neutrons that are emitted immediately following nuclear fission, as distinct from delayed neutrons. which are emitted for some time after fission has occurred. Prompt neutrons comprise more than 99% of fission neutrons. (Compare delayed neutrons.)

prompt radiation Radiation produced by the primary fission or fusion process, as distinguished from the radiation from fission products, their decay chains and other later reactions.

protection Provisions to reduce exposure of persons to radiation. For example, protective barriers to reduce external radiation or measures to prevent inhalation of radioactive materials. (See radiation protection.)

protective action guide (PAG)

The absorbed dose of ionizing radiation to individuals in the general population which would warrant protective action following a contaminating event, such as a nuclear explosion. (See radiation protection guide.)

protective clothing

Special clothing worn by a radiation worker to prevent contamination of his body or his personal clothing.

protective survey

An evaluation of the radiation hazards incidental to the production, use, or existence of radioactive materials or other sources of radiation under a specific set of conditions.

proton An elementary particle with a single positive electrical charge and a mass approximately 1837 times that of the electron. The nucleus of an ordinary or light hydrogen atom. Protons are constituents of all nuclei. The atomic number (Z) of an atom is equal to the number of protons in its nucleus.

proton synchrotron

A type of particle accelerator for producing beams of very high energy protons (in the Bev range).

An electrical signal arising from a single event of ionizing radiation.

pulse amplifier

An amplifier designed specifically to amplify the intermittent signals of a radiation detection instrument, incorporating appropriate pulse-shaping characteristics.

pulse height

The measure of the strength or signal amplitude of a pulse delivered by a detector; measured in volts.

pulse height analyzer

An electronic circuit which sorts and records pulses according to height or voltage.

pulse height discriminator

(See discriminator.)

pulse height A circuit designed to select and pass voltage pulses in a certain range of amplitudes.

pulsed reactor A type of research reactor with which repeated short, intense surges of power and radiation can be produced. The neutron flux during each surge is much higher than could be tolerated during a steady-state operation.



A unit used to express very large energy figures. One Q equals 1018 (1 billion billion) BTU (British thermal units).

quality factor

The factor by which absorbed dose is to be multiplied to obtain a quantity that expresses on a common scale, for all ionizing radiations, the irradiation incurred by exposed persons. (See dose equivalent, distribution factor, relative biological effectiveness.)

quantum

Unit quantity of energy according to the quantum theory. It is equal to the product of the frequency of radiation of the energy and 6.6256×10^{-27} erg-sec. The photon carries a quantum of electromagnetic energy. (See electromagnetic radiation, radiation.) (See Planck's constant in Appendix.)

quantum theory

The statement according to Max Planck, German physicist, that energy is not emitted or absorbed continuously but in units or quanta. A corollary of this theory is that the energy of radiation is directly proportional to its frequency. (See quantum.)

quench

To limit or stop the electrical discharge in an ionization detector.



rabbit

A device to move a sample rapidly from one place (such as inside a research reactor) to another place (such as a radiochemistry laboratory). "Rabbits" often consist of small cylinders of aluminum or plastic. moved by air pressure through a long pipe.

(Acronym for radiation absorbed dose.) The basic unit of absorbed dose of ionizing radiation. A dose of one rad means the absorption of 100 ergs of radiation energy per gram of absorbing material. (Compare rem, roentgen; see absorbed dose.)

radiation

The emission and propagation of energy through matter or space by means of electromagnetic disturbances which display both wave-like and particlelike behavior; in this context the "particles" are known as photons. Also, the energy so propagated. The term has been extended to include streams of fast-moving particles (alpha and beta particles, free neutrons, cosmic radiation, etc.). Nuclear radiation is that emitted from atomic nuclei in various nuclear reactions, including alpha, beta and gamma radiation and neutrons. (See electromagnetic radiation, ionizing radiation, quantum.)

radiation accidents

Accidents resulting in the spread of radioactive material or in the exposure of individuals to radiation.

radiation area

Any accessible area in which the level of radiation is such that a major portion of an individual's body could receive in any one hour a dose in excess of 5 millirem, or in any 5 consecutive days a dose in excess of 150 millirem. (See absorbed dose, rem.)

radiation biology

(See radiobiology).

radiation burn

Radiation damage to the skin. Beta burns result from skin contact with or exposure to emitters of beta particles. Flash burns result from sudden thermal radiation. (See beta particles, flash burn, ionizing radiation, thermal burn.)

radiation chemistry

The branch of chemistry that is concerned with the chemical effects, including decomposition, of energetic radiation or particles on matter. (Compare radiochemistry.)

radiation damage

A general term for the harmful effects of radiation on matter.

radiation detection instruments

Devices that detect and record the characteristics of ionizing radiation. (See counter, dosimeter, monitor.)

radiation dosimetry

The measurement of the amount of radiation delivered to a specific place or the amount of radiation that was absorbed there. (See dosimeter.)

radiation illness

An acute organic disorder that follows exposure to relatively severe doses of ionizing radiation. It is characterized by nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, blood cell changes, and in later stages by hemorrhage and loss of hair. (See ionizing radiation.)

radiation monitoring Continuous or periodic determination of the amount of radiation present in a given area. (See monitor.)

radiation protection Legislation and regulations to protect the public and laboratory or industrial workers against radiation. Also measures to reduce exposure to radiation. (Compare protection; see radiation standards.)

guide

radiation protection The officially determined radiation doses which should not be exceeded without careful consideration of the reasons for doing so. These standards, established by the Federal Radiation Council, are equivalent to what was formerly called the maximum permissible dose or maximum permissible exposure. (See radioactivity concentration guide.)

radiation shielding

Reduction of radiation by interposing a shield of absorbing material between any radioactive source and a person, laboratory area, or radiation-sensitive device. (See absorber, shield.)

radiation source

Usually a man-made, sealed source of radioactivity used in teletherapy, radiography, as a power source for batteries, or in various types of industrial gauges. Machines such as accelerators, and radioisotopic generators and natural radionuclides may also be considered as sources.

radiation standards

Exposure standards, permissible concentrations, rules for safe handling, regulations for transportation, regulations for industrial control of radiation, and control of radiation exposure by legislative means. (See radiation protection, radiation protection guide.)

radiation sterlization

Use of radiation to cause a plant or animal to become sterile, that is, incapable of reproduction. Also the use of radiation to kill all forms of life (especially bacteria) in food, surgical sutures, etc. (Compare radiation illness, radiomutation.)

radiation therapy

Treatment of disease with any type of radiation. Often called radiotherapy. (See brachytherapy, teletherapy.)

radiation warning symbol



An officially prescribed symbol (a magenta trefoil on a yellow background) which should always be displayed when a radiation hazard exists.

radiations Specific units or types of radiation.

radiative capture A nuclear capture process whose prompt result is emission of electromagnetic radiation only, as when a NUCLEUS captures a neutron and emits gamma rays. (See capture.)

A prefix denoting radioactivity or a relationship to it. or a relationship to radiation.

radioactivation activation.

radioactive Exhibiting radioactivity or pertaining to radioactivity.

radioactive chain A radioactive series.

radioactive cloud A mass of air and vapor in the atmosphere carrying radioactive debris from a nuclear explosion. (See atomic cloud.)

radioactive

Deposition of radioactive material in any place where contamination it may harm persons, spoil experiments, or make products or equipment unsuitable or unsafe for some specific use. The presence of unwanted radioactive matter. Also radioactive material found on the walls of vessels in used-fuel processing plants, or radioactive material that has leaked into a reactor coolant. Often referred to only as contamination. (Compare background radiation; see decontamination.)

radioactive dating

A technique for measuring the age of an object or sample of material by determining the ratios of various radioisotopes or products of radioactive decay it contains. For example, the ratio of carbon-14 to carbon-12 reveals the approximate age of bones, pieces of wood, or other archeological specimens that contain carbon extracted from the air at the time of their origin. (Compare atomic clock; see decay, radioactive.)

radioactive decay disintegration (See decay, radioactive.)

radioactive fallout

(See fallout.)

(See half-life.)

radioactive half-life

radioactive isotope A radioisotope.

radioactive series A succession of nuclides, each of which transforms by radioactive disintegration into the next until a stable nuclide results. The first member is called the parent, the intermediate members are called daughters, and the final stable member is called the end product. (See decay, radioactive.) (See Appendix.)

radioactive source: A radiation source.

radioactive standard A sample of radioactive material, usually with a long half-life, in which the number and type of radioactive atoms at a definite reference time is known. These are used in calibrating radiation measuring equipment or for comparing measurements in different laboratories. (Compare radiation source.)

radioactive tracer

A small quantity of radioactive isotope (either with carrier or carrier-free) used to follow biological, chemical or other processes, by detection, determination or localization of the radioactivity. (See carrier; tracer, isotopic.)

radioactive waste (See waste, radioactive.)

radioactivity

The spontaneous decay or disintegration of an unstable atomic nucleus, usually accompanied by the emission of ionizing radiation. (Often shortened to "activity".) (See decay, radioactive.) (See Appendix.)

radioactivity concentration guide The concentration of radioactive material in an environment which would result in doses equal, over a period of time, to those in the Radiation Protection Guide. This Federal Radiation Council term replaces the former maximum permissible concentration.

radiobiology

The body of knowledge and the study of the principles, mechanisms, and effects of ionizing radiation on living matter.

radiochemistry

The body of knowledge and the study of the chemical properties and reactions of radioactive materials. (Compare radiation chemistry.)

radioecology

The body of knowledge and the study of the effects of radiation on species of plants and animals in natural communities.

radioelement

An element containing one or more radioactive isotopes; a radioactive element.

Of radioactive origin; produced by radioactive trans= formation. (See decay, radioactive; transmutation.)

The use of ionizing radiation for the production of shadow images on a photographic emulsion. Some of the rays (gamma rays or X rays) pass through the subject, while others are partially or completely absorbed by the more opaque parts of the subject and thus cast a shadow on the photographic film. (Compare autoradiograph.)

A radioactive isotope. An unstable isotope of an element that decays or disintegrates spontaneously, emitting radiation. More than 1300 natural and artificial radioisotopes have been identified. (See decay, radioactive; isotope.) (See Appendix.)

A small power generator that converts the heat released during radioactive decay directly into electricity. These generators generally produce only a few watts of electricity and use thermoelectric or thermionic converters. Some also function as electrostatic converters to produce a small voltage. Sometimes called an "atomic battery". (See decay, radioactive; SNAP.)

The science which deals with the use of all forms of ionizing radiation in the diagnosis and the treatment of disease. (Compare radioactive tracer, radiography.)

Visible light caused by radiations from radioactive substances; an example is the glow from luminous paint containing radium and crystals of zinc sulfide, which give off light when struck by alpha particles from the radium. (See luminescence.)

The dissociation (or decomposition) of molecules by radiation. Example: A small proportion of water in a reactor core dissociates into hydrogen and oxygen during operation of the reactor.

Chemical substances which cause biological effects similar to those caused by ionizing radiation.

radiomutation A permanent, transmissible change in form, quality, or other characteristic of a cell or offspring from the characteristics of its parent, due to radiation exposure. (See genetic effects of radiation, mutation.)

radionuclide A radioactive nuclide.

radioresistance A relative resistance of cells, tissues, organs, or organisms to the injurious action of radiation. (Compare radiosensitivity.)

radiosensitivity A relative susceptibility of cells, tissues, organs or organisms to the injurious action of radiation. (Compare radioresistance.)

radiotherapy radiation therapy.

[Symbol Ra] A radioactive metallic element with atomic number 88. As found in nature, the most common isotope has an atomic weight of 226. It occurs in minute quantities associated with uranium in pitchblende, carnotite and other minerals; the uranium decays to radium in a series of alpha and beta emissions. By virtue of being an alpha- and gamma-emitter, radium is used as a source of luminescence and as a radiation source in medicine and radiography. (See Appendix.)

radon [Symbol Rn] A radioactive element, one of the heaviest gases known. Its atomic number is 86, and its atomic weight is 222. It is a *daughter* of radium in the uranium *radioactive series*. (See Appendix.)

Examination of exhaled air for the presence of radon to determine the presence and quantity of radium in the human body. (See personnel monitoring.)

rare earths A group of 15 chemically similar metallic elements, including Elements 57 through 71 on the *Periodic Table* of the Elements, also known as the Lanthanide Series. (See *lanthanide series*.) (See Appendix.)

A measure of the departure of a nuclear reactor from criticality. It is about equal to the effective multiplication factor minus one and is thus precisely zero at criticality. If there is excess reactivity (positive reactivity), the reactor is supercritical and its power will rise. Negative reactivity (subcriticality) will result in a decreasing power level. (See criticality, dollar, excess reactivity, multiplication factor, subcritical assembly, supercritical reactor.)

reactor (See nuclear reactor.)

The reuse of fissionable material, after it has been recovered by chemical processing from spent or depleted reactor fuel, reenriched, and then refabricated into new fuel elements. (See fuel cycle, fuel reprocessing, spent fuel.)

reflector A layer of material immediately surrounding a reactor core which scatters back or reflects into the core many neutrons that would otherwise escape. The returned neutrons can then cause more fissions and improve the neutron economy of the reactor. Common reflector materials are graphite, beryllium and natural uranium. (Compare moderator.)

regulating rod A reactor control rod used for making frequent fine adjustments in reactivity. (Compare shim rod.)

relative biological A factor used to compare the biological effectiveness of different types of ionizing radiation. It is the inverse ratio of the amount of absorbed radiation, required to produce a given effect, to a standard (or reference) radiation required to produce the same effect. (See absorbed dose, distribution factor, quality factor, rad, rem.)

(Acronym for roentgen equivalent man.) The unit of dose of any ionizing radiation which produces the same biological effect as a unit of absorbed dose of ordinary X rays. The RBE dose (in rems) = RBE \times absorbed dose (in rads). (Compare curie, roentgen.)

rep (Acronym for roentgen equivalent physical.) An obsolete unit of absorbed dose of any ionizing radiation, with a magnitude of 93 ergs per gram. It has been superseded by the rad.

reprocessing fuel reprocessing.

A reactor primarily designed to supply neutrons or other ionizing radiation for experimental purposes. It may also be used for training, materials testing, and production of radioisotopes. (Compare experimental reactor, power reactor, production reactor, test reactor.)

The time during which radioactive material remains in the atmosphere following the detonation of a nuclear explosive. It is usually expressed as a half-time, since the time for all material to leave the atmosphere is not well known. (Compare half-life; see fallout.)

residual nuclear radiation

Lingering radiation, or radiation emitted by radioactive material remaining after a nuclear explosion. Residual radiation is arbitrarily designated as that emitted more than one minute after the explosion. (Compare fallout, initial nuclear radiation.)

resonance The phenomenon whereby particles such as neutrons exhibit a very high interaction probability with nuclei at specific kinetic energies of the particles. Cross sections for neutron capture and scattering, for example, exhibit peaks at these so-called resonance energies and have relatively low values between the peaks. (This term is also applied to several other phenomena in physics.) (See capture, cross section, nuclear reaction, scattering.)

rod A relatively long, slender body of material used in or in conjunction with a nuclear reactor. It may contain fuel, absorber, or material in which activation or transmutation is desired. (See control rod.)

roentgen [Abbreviation r] A unit of exposure to ionizing radiation. It is that amount of gamma or X rays required to produce ions carrying 1 electrostatic unit of electrical charge (either positive or negative) in 1 cubic centimeter of dry air under standard conditions. Named after Wilhelm Roentgen, German scientist who discovered X rays in 1895. (Compare curie, rad, rem.)

roentgen equivalent, (See rem.)

roentgen rays X rays.

roemigen therapy Radiation therapy with X rays.

roentgenography Radiography by means of X rays.

Rover A joint program of the Atomic Energy Commission and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration to develop a nuclear rocket for space flight. (See nuclear rocket.)



safety rod A standby control rod used to shut down a nuclear reactor rapidly in emergencies. (See scram.)

An electronic instrument for rapid counting of radiation-induced pulses from Geiger counters or other radiation detectors. It permits rapid counting by reducing (by a definite scaling factor) the number of pulses entering the counter. (See counter, Geiger-Müller counter.)

(See scanning, radioisotope.)

A method of determining the location and amount of radioactive isotopes within the body by measurements taken with instruments outside the body; usually the instrument, called a scanner, moves in a regular pattern over the area to be studied, or over the whole body, and makes a visual record. (Compare whole-body counter; see coincidence counting.)

A process that changes a particle's trajectory. Scattering is caused by *particle* collisions with atoms. nuclei, and other particles or by interactions with fields of magnetic force. If the scattered particle's internal energy (as contrasted with its kinetic energy) is unchanged by the collision, elastic scattering prevails; if there is a change in the internal energy, the process is called inelastic scattering. (See collision, Compton effect.)

In chemistry, the use of a nonspecific precipitate to remove one or more undesirable radionuclides from solution by absorption or coprecipitation. In atmospheric physics, the removal of radionuclides from the atmosphere by the action of rain, snow or dew. (See fallout.)

A flash of light produced in a phosphor by an IONIZ-ING EVENT. (Compare fluorescence, luminescence.)

scintillation counter

An instrument that detects and measures ionizing radiation by counting the light flashes (scintillations) caused by radiation impinging on certain materials (phosphors).

The sudden shutdown of a nuclear reactor, usually by rapid insertion of the safety rods. Emergencies or deviations from normal reactor operation cause the reactor operator or automatic control equipment to scram the reactor.

Seebeck effect The phenomenon involved in the operation of a thermocouple. It is named for the German scientist Thomas Seebeck, who first observed the phenomenon in 1822. (See thermocouple.)

seed (See seed core.)

seed (and blanket)

A reactor core which includes a relatively small volume of highly enriched uranium (the seed) surrounded by a much larger volume of natural uranium or thorium (the blanket). As a result of fissions in the seed, neutrons are supplied to the blanket where more fission takes place. In this way, the blanket is made to furnish a substantial fraction of the total power of the reactor. Also called a spiked core.

shell One of a series of concentric spheres, or orbits, at various distances from the nucleus, in which, according to atomic theory, electrons move around the nucleus of an atom. The shells are designated, in the order of increasing distance from the nucleus, as the k, l, m, n, o, p, and q shells. The number of electrons which each shell can contain is limited. Electrons in each shell have the same energy level and are further grouped into subshells. (See electron capture, K-capture.) (See Appendix.)

Sherwood The Atomic Energy Commission program for research in controlled thermonuclear reactions.

shield (shielding) A body of material used to reduce the passage of radiation. (See barricade shield, barrier shield, biological shield, radiation shielding, thermal shield.)

shim rod A reactor control rod used in making infrequent coarse adjustments in reactivity, as in startup or shutdown. (Compare regulating rod; see control rod, reactivity.)

shock wave A pressure pulse in air, water or earth, propagated from an explosion, which has two phases: in the first, or positive phase, the pressure rises sharply to a peak, then subsides to the normal pressure of the surrounding medium; in the second, or negative phase, the pressure falls below that of the medium, then returns. A shock wave in air usually is called a blast wave.

single-cycle reactor A direct-cycle reactor system.

slow neutron A thermal neutron.

A short, usually cylindrical fuel element.

(Acronym for Systems for Nuclear Auxiliary Power.) An Atomic Energy Commission program to develop small auxiliary nuclear power sources for specialized space, land, and sea uses. Two approaches are employed: the first uses heat from radioisotope decay to produce electricity directly by thermoelectric or thermionic methods; the second uses heat from small reactors to produce electricity by thermoelectric or thermionic methods or by turning a small turbine and electric generator. (See radioisotopic generator, thermionic conversion, thermoelectric conversion.)

A reactor that uses liquid sodium as coolant and graphite as moderator.

Effects of radiation limited to the exposed individual, as distinguished from genetic effects (which also affect subsequent, unexposed generations). Large radiation doses can be fatal. Smaller doses may make the individual noticeably ill, may merely produce temporary changes in blood-cell levels detectable only in the laboratory, or may produce no detectable effects whatever. Also called physiological effects of radiation. (Compare genetic effects of radiation; see radiation illness.)

(See radiation source.)

In atomic energy law any material, except special nuclear material, which contains 0.05% or more of uranium, thorium, or any combination of the two. (See licensed material, special nuclear material.)

An instrument for detecting and measuring the paths of ELEMENTARY PARTICLES. It is analogous to the cloud chamber and bubble chamber. It consists of numerous electrically charged metal plates mounted in a parallel array, the spaces between the plates being filled with an inert gas. Any ionizing event causes sparks to jump between the plates along the radiation path through the chamber. (Compare bubble chamber, cloud chamber.)

special nuclear. In atomic energy law, this term refers to plutonium-239, uranium-233, uranium containing more than the natural abundance of uranium-235, or any material artificially enriched in any of these substances. (Compare source material; see enriched material, licensed material.)

A theory developed by Albert Einstein in 1905 that is of great importance in atomic and nuclear physics. It is especially useful in studies of objects moving with speeds approaching the speed of light. Two of the results of the theory with specific application in nuclear physics are statements (a) that the mass of an object increases with its velocity and (b) that mass and energy are equivalent. (See mass-energy equation.)

species A particular kind of atomic nucleus, atom, molecule or ion: a nuclide.

specific activity

The radioactivity of a radioisotope of an element per unit weight of the element in a sample. The activity per unit mass of a pure radionuclide. The activity per unit weight of any sample of radioactive material. (See radioactivity.)

specific ionization The number of ion pairs formed per unit of distance along the track of an ion passing through matter. (See ionization, ionizing radiation.)

The power generated in a nuclear reactor per unit mass of fuel. It is expressed in kilowatts of heat per kilogram of fuel. (See power density.)

spectral shift A reactor design in which a mixture of light water and heavy water is used as the moderator and coolant. The ratio of light to heavy water is varied to change (shift) the speed distribution (spectrum) of the neutrons in the reactor core. Since the probability of neutron capture varies with neutron velocity, a measure of reactor control is thus obtained.

spectrum A visual display, a photographic record, or a plot of the distribution of the intensity of a given type of radiation as a function of its wave length, energy, frequency, momentum, mass, or any related quantity.

spent (depleted)

Nuclear reactor fuel that has been irradiated (used) to the extent that it can no longer effectively sustain a chain reaction. (Compare depleted uranium; see burnub.)

spiked core A seed core.

The accidental release of radioactive material.

Fission that occurs without an external stimulus. Several heavy isotopes decay mainly in this manner; examples: californium-252 and californium-254. The process occurs occasionally in all fissionable materials, including uranium-235.

Incapable of spontaneous change. Not radioactive.

An isotope that does not undergo radioactive decay. (Compare radioisotope.)

A measure of the effect of a substance upon the kinetic energy of a charged particle passing through it. (Compare cross section; see absorption.)

A class of very short-lived elementary particles that decay more slowly than they are formed, indicating that the production process and decay process result from different fundamental reactions. They include K-mesons and hyperons.

Chemical corrosion, such as of reactor pressure vessels, that is accelerated by stress concentrations, either built into or resulting from a load.

Any of the constituent particles of an atom: an electron, neutron, proton, etc.

A reactor consisting of a mass of fissionable material and moderator whose effective multiplication factor is less than one and that hence cannot sustain a chain reaction. Used primarily for educational purposes. (See criticality, multiplication factor, reactivity.)

An amount of fissionable material insufficient in quantity or of improper geometry to sustain a fission chain reaction. (See critical mass, criticality.)

A subcritical assembly.

A mass of fuel whose effective multiplication factor is greater than one. (See critical mass, multiplication factor.)

supercritical reactor A reactor in which the effective multiplication factor is greater than one; consequently a reactor that is increasing its power level. If uncontrolled, a supercritical reactor would undergo an excursion. (See criticality, excursion, multiplication factor.)

superheating The heating of a vapor, particularly saturated (wet) steam, to a temperature much higher than the boiling point at the existing pressure. This is done in power plants to improve efficiency and to reduce condensation in the turbines. (See nuclear superheating.)

The deposition and attachment of radioactive materials to a surface. (See radioactive contamination.)

Surface Zero (See ground zero.)

Any portable radiation detection instrument especially adapted for surveying or inspecting an area to establish the existence and amount of radioactive material present. (Compare counter, monitor.)

survival curve Obtained by plotting the number or percentage of organisms surviving at a given time against the dose of radiation, or the number surviving at different intervals after a particular dose of radiation. (See lethal dose.)

A pool reactor.

A cyclotron in which the frequency of the accelerating voltage is decreased with time so as to match exactly the slowing revolutions of the accelerated particles. The decrease in rate of acceleration of the particles results from the increase of mass with energy as predicted by the Special Theory of Relativity. (Compare synchrotron; see cyclotron.)

synchrotron An accelerator in which particles are accelerated around a circular path by radio-frequency electric fields. The magnetic guiding and focusing fields are increased synchronously to match the energy gained by the particles so that the orbit radius remains constant. (Compare cyclotron, synchrocyclotron.)



(See tracer, isotopic.)

talls (See depleted uranium.)

tank reactor A reactor in which the core is suspended in a closed tank, as distinct from an open pool reactor. These are commonly used as research and test reactors. (Compare pool reactor.)

Material subjected to particle bombardment (as in an accelerator) or irradiation (as in a research reactor) in order to induce a nuclear reaction; also a nuclide that has been bombarded or irradiated. (See cross section, X ray.)

A research reactor or subcritical assembly.

Radiation treatment administered by using a source that is at a distance from the body, usually employing gamma-ray beams from radioisotope sources. (Compare brachytherapy; see radiation therapy.)

The change in reactor reactivity (per degree of temperature) occurring when the operating temperature changes. The coefficient is said to be positive when an increase in temperature increases the reactivity, negative when an increase in temperature decreases reactivity. Negative temperature coefficients are desirable because they help to prevent power excursions. (See excursion, reactivity.)

A reactor specially designed to test the behavior of materials and components under the neutron and gamma fluxes and temperature conditions of an operating reactor. (Compare experimental reactor, research reactor.)

A breeder reactor in which the fission chain reaction is sustained by thermal neutrons.

thermal burn A burn of the skin or other organic material due to radiant heat, such as that produced by the detonation of a nuclear explosive. (See flash burn, radiation burn, radiation illness.)

A channel built into some research reactors to supply thermal neutrons for experimental purposes. It consists of a large body of moderator located adjacent to the core or reflector. Neutrons escaping from the reactor enter the thermal column where they are slowed down to thermal energies with velocities of about 2200 meters per second. (See thermal neutron.)

thermal efficiency The ratio of the electric power produced by a power plant to the amount of heat produced by the fuel; a measure of the efficiency with which the plant converts thermal to electrical energy.

A neutron in thermal equilibrium with its surrounding medium. Thermal neutrons are those that have been slowed down by a moderator to an average speed of about 2200 meters per second (at room temperature) from the much higher initial speeds they had when expelled by fission. This velocity is similar to that of gas molecules at ordinary temperatures. (Compare fast neutron, intermediate neutron; see fission.)

Electromagnetic radiation emitted from the fireball produced by a nuclear explosion. Thirty-five percent of the total energy of a nuclear explosion is emitted in the form of thermal radiation, as light, ultraviolet and infrared radiation.

A reactor in which the fission chain reaction is sustained primarily by thermal neutrons. Most reactors are thermal reactors. (Compare fast reactor, intermediate reactor; see thermal neutron.)

A layer or layers of high density material located within a reactor pressure vessel or between the vessel and the biological shield to reduce radiation heating in the vessel and the biological shield. (See biological shield, shield.)

The conversion of heat into electricity by evaporating electrons from a hot metal surface and condensing them on a cooler surface. No moving parts are required. (Compare thermoelectric conversion.)

A device consisting essentially of two conductors made of different metals, joined at both ends, producing a loop in which an electric current will flow when there is a difference in temperature between the two junctions. (See Seebeck effect, thermoelectric conversion.)

The conversion of heat into electricity by the use of thermocouples. (Compare thermionic conversion; see thermocouple.)

A hydrogen bomb (device).

thermonuclear A reaction in which very high temperatures bring about the fusion of two light nuclei to form the nucleus of a heavier atom, releasing a large amount of energy. In a hydrogen bomb, the high temperature to initiate the thermonuclear reaction is produced by a preliminary fission reaction. (See fusion, Sherwood.)

[Symbol Th] A naturally radioactive element with atomic number 90 and, as found in nature, an atomic weight of approximately 232. The fertile thorium-232 isotope is abundant and can be transmuted to fissionable uranium-233 by neutron irradiation. (See fertile material, transmutation.) (See Appendix.)

(sequence)

The series of nuclides resulting from the radioactive decay of thorium-232. Many man-made nuclides decay into this sequence. The end product of this sequence in nature is lead-208. (See decay, radioactive; radioactive series.) (See Appendix.)

The minimum dose of radiation that will produce a detectable biological effect. (See absorbed dose, biological dose.)

A device for separating and sorting neutrons (or other particles) into categories of similar energy, measured by the time it takes the particles to travel a known distance. (Compare mass spectrometer.)

TAT equivalent A measure of the energy released in the detonation of a nuclear explosive expressed in terms of the weight of TNT (the chemical explosive, trinitrotoluene) which would release the same amount of energy when exploded. It is usually expressed in kilotons or megatons. The TNT equivalence relationship is based on the fact that 1 ton of TNT releases one billion (109) calories of energy. (See kiloton energy, megaton energy, vield.)

toll enrichment A proposed arrangement whereby privately owned uranium could be enriched in uranium-235 content in government facilities upon payment of a service charge by the owners. (See isotopic enrichment, uranium.)

tracer, isotopic An isotope of an element, a small amount of which may be incorporated into a sample of material (the carrier) in order to follow (trace) the course of that element through a chemical, biological or physical process, and thus also follow the larger sample. The tracer may be radioactive, in which case observations are made by measuring the radioactivity. If the tracer is stable, mass spectrometers, density measurement, or neutron activation analysis may be employed to determine isotopic composition. Tracers also are called labels or tags, and materials are said to be labeled or tagged when radioactive tracers are incorporated in them. (See carrier, radioactive tracer.)

transformation, transmutation,

transmutation The transformation of one element into another by a nuclear reaction or series of reactions. Example: the transmutation of uranium-238 into plutonium-239 by absorption of a neutron.

transplatorium An element above plutonium in the PERIODIC TABLE, that is, one with an atomic number greater than 94. (See transuranic element.)

An element above uranium in the PERIODIC TABLE, that is, with an atomic number greater than 92. All 11 transuranic elements are produced artificially and are radioactive. They are neptunium, plutonium, americium, curium, berkelium, californium, einsteinium, fermium, mendelevium, nobelium, and lawrencium. (See Appendix.)

transuranium element

A transuranic element.

triage

The process of determining which casualties (from a large number of persons exposed to heavy radiation) need urgent treatment, which ones are well enough to go untreated, and which ones are beyond hope of benefit from treatment. Used in medical aspects of civil defense.

A radioactive *isotope* of hydrogen with two neutrons and one proton in the nucleus. It is man-made and is heavier than deuterium (heavy hydrogen). Tritium is used in industrial thickness gauges, and as a label in experiments in chemistry and biology. Its nucleus is a triton. (Compare deuterium; see hydrogen.)

The nucleus of a tritium (3H) atom. (See hydrogen, tritium.)



Uranium-235. (See uranium.) (See Appendix.)

unstable isotope A radioisotope. (Compare stable isotope.)

uranium [Symbol U] A radioactive element with the atomic number 92 and, as found in natural ores, an average atomic weight of approximately 238. The two principal natural isotopes are uranium-235 (0.7% of natural uranium), which is fissionable, and uranium-238 (99.3% of natural uranium) which is fertile. Natural uranium also includes a minute amount of uranium-234. Uranium is the basic raw material of nuclear energy. (See fertile material, fissionable material. natural uranium.) (See Appendix.)

(See isotopic enrichment.)

[Symbol UF₆] A volatile compound of uranium and hexafluoride fluorine. UF, gas is the process fluid in the gaseous diffusion process. (See isotope separation.)

Uranium series The series of nuclides resulting from the radioactive decay of uranium-238, also known as the uraniumradium series. The end product of the series is lead-206. Many man-made nuclides decay into this sequence. (See decay, radioactive; radioactive series.) (See Appendix.)

[Symbol UF4] A solid green compound called green tetraffuoride salt. An intermediate product in the production of uranium hexafluoride. (See uranium hexafluoride.)

Uranium trioxide [Symbol UO₃] An intermediate product in the refining of uranium, also called orange oxide.

Use charge An annual rental charge assessed by the Atomic Energy Commission for inventories of enriched fissionable material.



Van de Graaff

An electrostatic machine in which electrically charged particles are sprayed on a moving belt and carried by it to build up a high potential on an insulated terminal. Charged particles are then accelerated along a discharge path through a vacuum tube by the potential difference between the insulated terminal and the opposite end of the machine. A Van de Graaff accelerator is often used to inject particles into larger accelerators. Named after R. S. Van de Graaff, who invented the device in 1931. (See accelerator.)

vapor suppression

A safety system that can be incorporated in the design of structures housing water reactors. In the system, the space surrounding the reactor is vented into pools of water open to the outside air. If surges of hot vapors should be released from the reactor in an accident, their energy (pressure) would be dissipated in the pools of water. Gases not condensed would be scrubbed clean of radioactive particles by the bubbling. Another system uses a suppression pool in a separate pressure vessel that can be vented through a stack. Also called pressure suppression. (Compare pressure vessel.)

A rate of change in the reactivity of a water reactor system resulting from a formation of steam bubbles as the power level and temperature increase.



Equipment and materials (from nuclear operations) which are radioactive and for which there is no further use. Wastes are generally classified as highlevel (having radioactivity concentrations of hundreds to thousands of curies per gallon or cubic foot), lowlevel (in the range of 1 microcurie per gallon or cubic foot), or intermediate (between these extremes). (Compare fission products.)

water boiler. A research reactor whose core consists of a small metal tank filled with uranium fuel in an aqueous solution. Heat is removed by a cooling coil in the core. Not to be confused with boiling water reactor.

wet criticality Reactor criticality achieved with the coolant present. (Compare dry criticality.)

A device used to identify and measure the radiation in the body (body burden) of human beings and animals; it uses heavy shielding to keep out background radiation and ultrasensitive scintillation detectors and electronic equipment. (Compare scanner; see body burden.)



X ray A penetrating form of electromagnetic radiation emitted either when the inner orbital electrons of an excited atom return to their normal state (these are characteristic X rays), or when a metal target is bombarded with high speed electrons (these are bremsstrahlung). X rays are always nonnuclear in origin. (Compare bremsstrahlung, gamma rays; see excited state.)



The total energy released in a nuclear explosion. It is usually expressed in equivalent tons of TNT (the quantity of TNT required to produce a corresponding amount of energy). Low yield is generally considered to be less than 20 kilotons; low intermediate yield from 20 to 200 kilotons; intermediate yield from 200 kilotons to 1 megaton. There is no standardized term to cover yields from 1 megaton upward. (Compare fission yield; see TNT equivalent.)



The symbol for atomic number.

zero-power reactor

An experimental reactor operated at such low power levels that a coolant is not needed and little radioactivity is produced. (Compare subcritical assembly.)

Popular-level glossaries available include the following:

- 101 Atomic Terms and What They Mean, Esso Research and Engineering Company, P. O. Box 172, Linden, New Jersey 07036, 1964, 20 pp., free
- Glossary of Atomic Terms, Technical Writers' Section, Public Relations Branch, United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority, London, 1966, 62 pp., 3 shillings 6 pence (\$0.42).

More detailed and more technical definitions and definitions of a more comprehensive list of terms may be found in other books, such as the following:

- Atomic Energy Deskbook, John F. Hogerton, Reinhold Publishing Corporation, New York 10022, 1963, 673 pp., \$11.00.
- Atomic Energy Encyclopedia in the Life Sciences, Charles Wesley Schilling, editor and major contributor, W. B. Saunders Company, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19105, 1964, 474 pp., \$10.50.
- Concise Dictionary of Atomics, Alfred Del Vecchio (Ed.), Philosophical Library, Inc., New York 10016, 1964, 262 pp., \$6.00. (Out of print but available through libraries.)
- Newnes Concise Encyclopedia of Nuclear Energy, D. E. Barnes et al., advisory editors, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York 10016, 1962, 886 pp., \$25.00.
- Sourcebook on Atomic Energy (third edition), Samuel Glasstone, D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., Princeton, New Jersey 08540, 1967, 883 pp., \$9.25.
- Glossary of Terms Frequently Used in Nuclear Physics, compiled by Dr. Robert L. Stearns, American Institute of Physics, New York 10017, 1961, 37 pp., \$1.00.
- Glossary of Terms Frequently Used in High Energy Physics, compiled by Dr. Allen M. Sachs and Dr. Melvin Schwartz, American Institute of Physics, New York 10017, 1961, 20 pp., \$1.00.

APPENDIX

RECOMMENDED UNIT PREFIXES

The following unit prefixes are the ones adopted by the International Committee on Weights and Measures.

Multiples and submultiples	Prefixes	Symbols	Pronunciation
$\begin{array}{c} 1.0^{12} \\ 1.0^{9} \\ 1.0^{6} \\ 1.0^{3} \\ 1.0^{2} \\ 1.0 \\ 1.0^{-1} \\ 1.0^{-2} \\ 1.0^{-3} \\ 1.0^{-6} \\ 1.0^{-9} \\ 1.0^{-12} \end{array}$	tera giga* mega kilo hecto deka deci centi milli micro nano pico†	T G M k h da d c m	těr' à ji' gà meg' à kĭl' ô hĕk' tô dĕk' à dĕs' ĭ sĕn' tĭ mĭl' lĭ mñ' krō pē' kō
10^{-15} 10^{-18}	femto atto	f a	fĕm'tō ăt'tō

^{*}Also beva (symbol B, pronounced be'va).

†Also micromicro (symbol $\mu\mu$).

A NOTE ABOUT NUMERICAL ABBREVIATIONS

Numerical abbreviations used in nuclear science are likely to be composed of two elements: first, an abbreviation of a numerical prefix expressing some multiple or fraction of unity, and second, an abbreviation of a unit which measures some basic property. Examples of both elements are:

PREFIXES

Prefix	Meaning
pico	divide by 1 trillion (10^{-12})
nano	divide by 1 billion (10^{-9})
micro	divide by 1 million (10^{-6})
milli	divide by 1 thousand (10^{-3})
kilo	multiply by 1 thousand (10 ³)
mega	multiply by 1 million (10 ⁶)
giga	multiply by 1 billion (10 ⁹)

UNITS (See preceding pages for definitions)

Unit	Abbreviation	Measured Property
0.111.0		measured Property
angstrom	Å	length of radiation
barn	b	cross section
curie	С	radioactivity
electron volt	ev	energy
gram	g	mass
meter	m	length
rad	rad	radiation absorbed dose
roentgen	r	radiation dose
rem	rem	radiation dose
second	sec	time
ton	t	nuclear weapon energy in TNT equivalent
watt	w	power

Knowing the two ingredients, it is easy to understand or to employ numerical abbreviations. Examples:

Abbreviation	Full Term	Meaning
mb μc kt	millibarn microcurie kiloton	One thousandth of a barn One millionth of a curie One thousand tons of TNT equivalent

APPENDIX

CONSTANTS

The following values are supplied as useful reference values for students, as recommended by the National Academy of Sciences—National Research Council, and adopted by the National Bureau of Standards:

Constant	Symbol	Definition	Values
Speed of light in vacuum	c	~	2.997925×10^{10} centimeters/sec.
Avogadro number	N	Number of molecules in one gram-molec- ular weight of a sub- stance.	6.02252×10^{23}
Faraday constant	F	Quantity of electricity to free chemical equivalent weight of a substance (in electrolysis).	$\begin{array}{c} 9.64870 \times 10^4 \\ \text{coulombs} \end{array}$
Planck constant	h	Energy of quantum of radiation in relation to frequency of source.	6.62556×10^{-27} erg-sec.
Elementary charge	e = F/N	Electric charge on one electron.	4.80298 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ e.s.u. (electro-
Electron rest mass Proton rest mass	$m_e \\ m_p$	_ _	static units). 9.1091×10^{-28} gram 1.67252×10^{-24} gram

NUCLIDE DESIGNATION (SUBSCRIPTS AND SUPERSCRIPTS)

In accordance with recommendations of the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry, the following designations are used for nuclides:

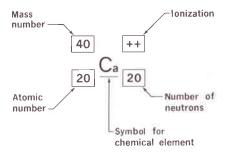
The MASS NUMBER of a nuclide is placed as a superscript to the left of the symbol for the chemical element of the nuclide, rather than to its right, as formerly; for example, ¹⁴N, rather than N¹⁴ for nitrogen-14.

The ATOMIC NUMBER is placed as a left subscript; for example, $^{14}_{6}$ C for carbon-14, or $^{235}_{92}$ U for uranium-235.

The state of *IONIZATION* is shown as a *right superscript*; for example, Ca⁺⁺ or SO₄⁻⁻.

The number of NEUTRONS in the nucleus is shown as a $right\ subscript$; for example, $^{40}_{20}\text{Ca}_{20}$ for the isotope of calcium-40 containing 20 protons (its atomic number) (left subscript), and 20 neutrons (right subscript) in its nucleus.

Excited states are shown either as part of the *left superscript*, or sometimes the *right superscript*; for example: ^{110 m}Ag or ¹¹⁰Ag indicates an excited state of a silver-110 nucleus; He* indicates an excited state of a helium atom.



APPENDIX

2 He	Ne 10	18 Ar	% 7×	X ×	86 Rn	
	6 L	17 Cl	35 Br	53 –	85 At	
	∞ 0	16 S	Se 32	52 Te	% Po	
	~ Z	15 P	33 As	51 Sb	83 B i	
	9	14 Si	32 Ge	50 Sn	82 Pb	
Z	5	13 AI	31 Ga	49 In	₩ F	
MEN			30 Zn	48 Cd	80 Hg	
PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS			29 Cu	47 Ag	79 Au	
E			8 Z	46 Pd	28 4	
ILE 0			27 Co	45 Rh	77 Ir	
TAB			26 Fe	44 Ru	76 Os	
SIODIC			25 Mn	43 Tc	75 Re	
PER			24 Cr	42 Mo	74 W	
			23 >	41 Nb	73 Ta	
			22 Ti	40 Zr	72 Hf	
			21 Sc	39	57-71 La* Series	89-103 Act Series
	4 Be	12 Mg	20 Ca	% \$	56 Ba	88 Ra
- I	3	II Na	19 x	37 Rb	55 Cs	87 Fr

"Lanthanide	57	28	59	09	19	62	63	28	65	99	29	89	69	70	71
Series	La	Ce	P	PN	Pm	Sm	En	рg	ባ	ò	위	Ā	Ē	ΥP	3
†Actinide	89	06	91	92	93	94	95	96	76	86	66	100	101	102	(103)
Series	Ac	Ļ	Ра	n	ď	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Č	Es	Fm	Md	%	۲

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF ELEMENTS AND SYMBOLS

Atomic Alomic Element Symbol number weight* Element	Symbol	Atomic number	Atomic weight*
M. D. I. I. I.	Mo	42	95.95
Actinium	Nd	60	144.26
Addition	Ne	10	20.182
Americian	Np	93	237
Alternolly	Ni	28	58.71
Argon	747	20	000,1
Atsenic	Nb	41	92_91
Astatile	N	7	14.007
Daridat	No	102	254
Del Kelidiii	Os	76	190.2
Berymun Be	0	8	15.999
Bishidh	Pd	46	106.4
201011	P	15	30,973
Diomine	Pt	78	195_08
Cadmidin	Pu	94	242
Caretum	Po	84	210
Californium	K	19	39.098
Carbon	Pr	59	140_91
Certain	Pm	61	147
Cestum	Pa	91	231
Chlorine	Ra	88	226
Chromium	Rn	86	222
Cobait	Re	75	186,21
Copper	Rh	45	102,90
Curium Cini	Rb	37	85.48
Dysprosium by	Ru	44	101.1
Emsterman	Sm	62	150.34
Erolum El 00 land	Se	21	44.96
Europium	Se	34	78.96
Fermium Fin 100 200 Cilinon	Si	14	28.09
Fillorine	Ag	47	107.875
Francium Ft 61 225	Na	11	22.990
Gadolinium	Sr	38	87,63
Gairium	S	16	32,064
Germanium	Ta	73	180.94
Gold	Tc	43	99
Harmum III	Те	52	127,60
Heridit To The State of the Sta	Tb	65	158.92
Holmium Ho of The History	Tl	81	204.38
tiydiogen 11	Th	90	232,04
Indium In 49 114.81 Thorson 1 100	Tm	69	168,93
Iridium Ir 77 192.2 Tin	Sn	5.0	118.69
Tita eium	Ti	22	47.90
1100			
Krypton Kr 36 83.80 lungsten Lanthanum La 57 138,91 (Wolfram)	W	7.4	183,85
Lanthanum La 57 136,51 Lawrencium Lr 103 257 Uranium	U	92	238,06
Lead Pb 82 207 20 Vanadium	V	23	50,95
Lead FD 62 2012	Xe	54	131,29
Lithium	Yb	7.0	173.03
Vitalian	Y	39	88.92
Magnesium Mg 12 24-02	Zn	3.0	65.38
Manganese Min 23 34.34	Zr	40	91.22
Mendelevium Md 101 256 Zircomum Mercury Hg 80 200,60			

^{*}Atomic weight of the most abundant or best known isotope, or (in the case of radioactive isotopes) the isotope with the longest half-life, relative to atomic weight of Carbon-12 = 12.

APPENDIX

THE TRANSURANIUM ELEMENTS

Atomic			Atomic	Atomic			À4 - •
number	Element	Symbol	weight*	number	Element	Symbol	Atomic weight*
93 94 95 96 97 98	Neptunium Plutonium Americium Curium Berkelium Californium	Np Pu Am Cm Bk Cf	237 242 243 248 249 249	99 100 101 102 103	Einsteinium Fermium Mendelevium Nobelium Lawrencium	Es Fm Md No Lr	254 253 256 254 257

^{*} Mass number of longest-lived or more available isotope.

ISOTOPES OF SOME OF THE ELEMENTS*

Element	Isotopes (Mass Numbers)
Hydrogen Helium Lithium Carbon Nitrogen	1, 2, 3 4, 3, 6 7, 6, 8, 9 12, 13, 14, 11, 10, 15 14, 15, 13, 16, 17, 12
Oxygen Fluorine Sodium Magnesium	16, 18, 17, 15, 14, 19 19, 18, 17, 20, 21 23, 22, 24, 25, 21, 20 24, 26, 25, 28, 27, 23
Aluminum Sulfur Chlorine Potassium	27, 26, 29, 28, 25, 24 32, 34, 33, 36, 35, 37, 31 35, 37, 36, 39, 38, 33, 34, 32 39, 41, 40, 43, 42, 44, 38, 37
Calcium Iron Cobalt Nickel	40, 44, 42, 48, 43, 46, 41, 45, 47, 49, 39 56, 54, 57, 58, 55, 59, 52, 53 59, 60, 57, 56, 58, 55, 61, 62, 54 58, 60, 62, 61, 64, 59, 63, 66, 57, 65, 56 63, 65, 67, 64, 61, 60, 62, 58, 66, 68
Copper Zinc Bromine	64, 66, 68, 67, 70, 65, 72, 62, 71, 69, 63 79, 81, 77, 82, 76, 83, 75, 74, 84, 80, 78, 85, 87,
Silver	88 107, 109, 105, 106, 111, 113, 112, 103, 104, 115, 108, 114, 110
Tin Iodine	120, 118, 116, 119, 117, 124, 122, 112, 114, 115, 123, 113, 125, 121, 108, 127, 126, 111, 109, 127, 129, 125, 126, 131, 124, 133, 123, 130, 135,
Barium	132, 121, 134, 128, 122, 137, 138, 139 138, 137, 136, 135, 134, 130, 132, 133, 140, 131, 128, 129, 126, 141, 142, 143
Platinum	195, 194, 196, 198, 192, 1 90 , <i>188</i> , <i>191</i> , <i>197</i> , <i>189</i> , <i>187</i> , <i>199</i>
Gold Mercury	197, 195, 196, 199, 198, 194, 193, 192, 191, 200, 189, 201, 187, 203 202, 200, 199, 201, 198, 204, 196, 203, 197, 195,
Lead	192, 193, 191, 189, 205 208, 206, 207, 204 , 202, 210 , 203, 200, 212 , 201,
Bismuth	209, 199, 211, 214, 198 209, 210, 207, 205, 206, 204, 203, 201, 202, 212, 213, 200, 199, 214, 215, 198, 211
Radon	222, 211, 210, 209, 221, 212, 208, 220, 219, 218, 217, 216, 215
Radium Thorium†	226, 228, 225, 223, 224, 227, 213, 222, 221, 220, 219 232, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231,
Uranium	233, 234 238, 235, 234, 236, 233, 232, 230, 237, 231, 240, 229, 239, 228, 227
Neptunium	237, 236, 235, 234, 239, 238, 240, 231, 233, 241, 232

Element	Isotopes (Mass Numbers)
Plutonium	244, 242, 239, 240, 238, 241, 236, 237, 246, 245,
	234, 243, 232, 235
-Americium†	243, 241, 242, 240, 239, 238, 245, 237, 244, 246
Curium †	248, 245, 246, 243, 244, 242, 247, 241, 240, 238
Berkelium†	247, 249, 245, 246, 248, 244, 243, 250
Californium†	251, 249, 250, 252, 248, 254, 253, 246, 247, 245,
	244
Einsteinium†	254, 253, 245, 246, 248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 255,
	256
Fermium†	257, 253, 252, 255, 248, 249, 250, 251, 254, 256
Mendelevium	256, 255
Nobelium†	254, 255, 256
Lawrencium	257

*Stable isotopes in ordinary type. Naturally radioactive isotopes in boldface. Other radioisotopes in *italics*. Natural isotopes given in order of abundance. All other isotopes given in order of length of half-life.

†Not listed in order of length of half-life.

RADIOACTIVE DECAY

The Actinium Series

Element	Symbol	Radiation emitted	Half life
Uranium Thorium Protactinium	²³⁵ U ²³¹ Th ²³¹ Pa	α β α	$7.13 imes 10^8$ years 25.6 hours $3.43 imes 10^4$ years
Actinium*	$^{227}\mathrm{Ac}$	$\beta (98.8\%)$ and $\alpha (1.2\%)$	21.8 years
Thorium Francium Radium Radon	²²⁷ Th ²²³ Fr ²²³ Ra ²¹⁹ Rn	α β α α	18.4 days 21 minutes 11.7 days 3.92 seconds
Polonium*	$^{215}\mathrm{Po}$	$\begin{cases} \alpha \ (\sim 100\%) \\ \text{and } \beta \ (\sim 5 \times 10^{-4}\%) \end{cases}$	$1.83 \times 10^{-3} \ \mathrm{second}$
Lead Astatine	²¹¹ Pb ²¹⁵ At	$\beta \atop \alpha$	36.1 minutes $\sim 10^{-4}$ second
Bismuth*	$^{211}\mathrm{Bi}$	$\begin{cases} \alpha \ (99.7\%) \\ \text{and } \beta \ (0.3\%) \end{cases}$	2.16 minutes
Polonium Thallium Lead	²¹¹ Po ²⁰⁷ Tl ²⁰⁷ Pb	α β Stable	0.52 second 4.78 minutes
Licad	10	COMOLO	

*Undergoes both alpha and beta decay, in definite proportion to decay events, as shown

The Thorium Series

Element	Symbol	Radiation emitted	Half life
Thorium	$^{232}\mathrm{Th}$	α	$1.39 \times 10^{10} \; \mathrm{years}$
Radium	228 Ra	β	6.7 years
Actinium	^{228}Ac	β	6.13 hours
Thorium	$^{228}\mathrm{Th}$	α	1.91 years
Radium	^{224}Ra	α	3.64 days
Radon	$^{220}\mathrm{Rn}$	α	52 seconds
Polonium	216 Po	α	0.16 second
Lead	212 Pb	β	10.6 hours
Bismuth*	$^{212}\mathrm{Bi}$	$\begin{cases} \beta \ (66.3\%) \\ \text{and } \alpha \ (33.7\%) \end{cases}$	60.5 minutes
Polonium	^{212}Po	α	3×10^{-7} second
Thallium	$^{208}\text{T1}$	β	3.1 minutes
Lead	$^{208}\mathrm{Pb}$	Stable	2

*Undergoes both alpha and beta decay, in definite proportion to the decay events, as shown.

The Neptunium Series

Element	Symbol	Radiation emitted	Half life
Plutonium Americium	²⁴¹ Pu ²⁴¹ Am	β	13.2 years 462 years
Neptunium	$^{237}\mathrm{Np}$	α	2.20×10^6 years
Protactinium Uranium	²³³ Pa ²³³ H	β	27.4 days $1.62 \times 10^5 \text{ years}$
Thorium	²²⁹ Th	α	$7.34 \times 10^3 \text{ years}$
Radium Actinium	²²⁵ Ra ²²⁵ Ac	β	14.8 days 10.0 days
Francium	$^{221}\mathrm{Fr}$	α	4.8 minutes
Astatine	²¹⁷ At	α (β (98%)	1.8×10^{-2} second
Bismuth*	²¹³ Bi ²¹³ Po	and α (2%)	47 minutes
Polonium Thallium	209Tl	α β	4.2×10^{-6} second 2.2 minutes
Lead Bismuth	²⁰⁹ Pb ²⁰⁹ Bi	β Stable	3.32 hours
Dismuth	Dì	Staute	-

 $\ensuremath{^{*}}\xspace$ Undergoes both alpha and beta decay, in definite proportion to decay events, as shown.

The Uranium Series

Element	Symbol	Radiation emitted	Half life
Uranium	$^{238}\mathrm{U}$	α	$4.51 \times 10^9 \text{ years}$
Thorium	²³⁴ Th	β	24_1 days
Protactinium*	²³⁴ Pa	β	1.18 minutes
Uranium	$^{234}{ m U}$	α	2.48×10^{5} years
Thorium	$^{230}{ m Th}$	α	8.0×10^4 years
Radium	²²⁶ Ra	α	1.62×10^3 years
Radon	$^{222}\mathrm{Rn}$	ά	3.82 days
Polonium†	²¹⁸ Po	$\begin{cases} \alpha & (99.98\%) \\ \text{and } \beta & (0.02\%) \end{cases}$	3.05 minutes
Lead	²¹⁴ Pb	β	26.8 minutes
Astatine	²¹⁸ At	α	2 seconds
Bismuth†	²¹⁴ Bi	$\begin{cases} \beta \ (99.96\%) \\ \text{and } \alpha \ (0.04\%) \end{cases}$	19.7 minutes
Polonium	²¹⁴ Po	α	1.6×10^{-4} second
Thallium	$^{210}{ m Tl}$	β	1.32 minutes
Lead	²¹⁰ Pb	β	19.4 years
Bismuth†	$^{210}\mathrm{Bi}$	$\begin{cases} \beta \ (\sim 100\%) \\ \text{and } \alpha \ (2 \times 10^{-4}\%) \end{cases}$	5.0 days
Polonium	$^{210}\mathrm{Po}$	α	138.4 days
Thallium	206Tl	β	4.20 minutes
Lead	²⁰⁶ Pb	Stable	_

*Protactinium also undergoes a process of isomeric transition in 0.12% of its decay events. The resulting isomer of ²³⁴Pa has a lower energy state. It then undergoes beta decay, with a half-life of 6.7 hours, to form ²³⁴U.
†Undergoes both alpha and beta decay, in definite proportion to the decay events, as shown.

ELECTRONIC ARRANGEMENT OF THE ELEMENTS

1		LLL	OIII	OIII	0 /	4141	en en e	-		140	O1			-		*							
١		Shells	K	L			M			N	ī				0				p.			Q	
١		Sub-Levels	1s	2s	2 <i>p</i>	3s	3 <i>p</i>	3 <i>d</i>	4s	4 p	4d	4f	5 <i>s</i>	5 <i>p</i>	54	1 5 <i>f</i>	6 <i>s</i>	6	b 6	d	6 <i>f</i>	7s	
	1 2	Hydrogen Helium	$\frac{1}{2}$																				
	3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	Lithium Beryllium Boron Carbon Nitrogen Oxygen Fluorine Neon	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	1 2 3 4 5 6																		
	11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	Sodium Magnesium Aluminum Silicon Phosphorus Sulfur Chlorine Argon	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	6 6 6 6 6 6 6	1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	1 2 3 4 5 6																
	19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36	Potassium Calcium Scandium Titanium Vanadium Chromium Manganese Iron Cobalt Nickel Copper Zinc Gallium Germanium Arsenic Selenium Bromine Krypton	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	1 2 3 5 5 6 7 8 10 10 10 10 10 10	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\$	1 2 3 4 5 6													
	37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52	Rubidium Strontium Yttrium Zirconium Niobium Molybdenum Technetium Ruthenium Rhodium Palladium Silver Cadmium Indium Tin Antimony Tellurium	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 23 2	6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	222222222222222	6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	6666666666666	1 2 4 5 6 7 8 10 10 10 10 10		1 2 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2 2 3 4									

1	Shells	K	I			M			1	ž.				0				p		Q
	Sub-Levels	1s	2s	2p	3s	3 <i>p</i>	3d	4s	4p	4d	4f	58	5 <i>p</i>	5 <i>d</i>	5 <i>f</i>	6s	6p	6 d	6 <i>f</i>	78
htt	lodine	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10		2	5							
hri	Xenon	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10		2	6							
no	Cestum	2	2	6	2	6	10	2:	6	10		2	6			13				
htt	Burium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10		2	6			2				
07	Lunthanum	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10		2	6	1		2				
58	Cerium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	2	2	6			2				
50	Praseodymium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	3	2	6			2				
0.0	Neodymium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	4	2	6			2				
(1)	Promethium	2	2	G	2	6	10	2	6	10	5	2	6			2				
0.2	Samarium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	6	2	6			2				
63	Europium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	7	2	6			2				
(14)	Gadolinium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	7	2	6	1		2				
65	Terbium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	9	2	6			2				
66	Dysprosium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	10	2	6			2				
67	Holmium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	11	2	6			2				
8.0	Erbium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	12	2	6			2				
69	Thulium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	13	2	6			2				
70	Ytterbium Lutetium	2	2	6	2	6	10 10	2	6	10 10	14 14	2	6	ĩ		2 2				
72	Hafnium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	2		2				
73	Tantalum	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	3		2				
7.4	Tungsten	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	4		2				
75	Rhenium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	22	6	5		2				
76	Osmium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	6		2				
77	Iridium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	7		2				
7 H	Platinum	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	8		2				
70	Gold	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		1				
HO	Mercury	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2				
H1	Thallium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2	1			
HS	Lead	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2	2			
83	Hismuth	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2	3			
84	Polonium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2	-4			
85	Astatine	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	63	10		2	ä			
80	Radon	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2	6			
Н7	Francium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2	6			1
HH	Radium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2	6			2
80	Actinium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	-65	10		2	6	1		2
100	Thorium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10		2	6	2		2
11.1	Protactinium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	2	2	6	1		2
92	Uranium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	3	2	6	1		2
93	Neptunium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	5	2	6			2
0.5	Plutonium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	.6	10	6	2	6			2
95	Americium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	6	2	6	1		2
96	Curium	22	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	7	2	6	1		2
97	Berkelium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	9	2	6			2
98	Californium	2	2	6	2 2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	10	2	6			2
100	Einsteinium Fermium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	11	2	6			2
101	Mendelevium	2	2	6	2	6	10 10	2	6	10 10	14 14	2	6	10	12	2	6			2
102	Nobelium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	14	2	6			2
103	Lawrencium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	14	2	6	10	14	2	6	1		2
	LAWAY CHCIGH	-	-	0	2	0	TO	40	U	TU	TA	4	200	10	TI	-	U	4		4

PRINCIPAL PRIMARY FISSION PRODUCTS

	Isotope	Symbol	Half Life
	Strontium	⁸⁹ Sr	53 days
ı	Strontium	$^{90}\mathrm{Sr}$	28 years
	Yttrium	$^{90}\mathrm{Y}$	64.2 hours
	Yttrium	91Y	57 days
ı	Zirconium	$^{95}\mathrm{Zr}$	65 days
	Niobium	⁹⁵ Nb	35 days
	Molybdenum	⁹⁹ Mo	68.3 hours
	Ruthenium	¹⁰³ Ru	39.8 days
	Ruthenium	$^{106}\mathrm{Ru}$	1 year
ı	Rhodium	¹⁰³ mRh	57 minutes
ı	Rhodium	$^{106}\mathrm{Rh}$	30 seconds
ı	Tellurium	¹³² Te	77.7 hours
١	Iodine	^{131}I	8.1 days
ı	Iodine	132 _I	2.4 hours
ı	Xenon	¹³³ Xe	5.27 days
ı	Cesium	137 Cs	30 years
ı	Barium	¹³⁷ Ba	2.6 minutes
ı	Barium	¹⁴⁰ Ba	12.8 days
ı	Lanthanum	¹⁴⁰ La	40 hours
ı	Cerium	¹⁴¹ Ce	32.5 days
١	Cerium	¹⁴⁴ Ce	290 days
ı	Praseodymium	$^{143}\mathrm{Pr}$	13.7 days
ı	Praseodymium	$^{144}\mathrm{Pr}$	17.5 minutes
ı	Neodymium	¹⁴⁷ Nd	11 days
ı	Promethium	147 Pm	2.6 years
Į	Promethium	$^{149}\mathrm{Pm}$	54 hours

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